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ART. I.—COMMERCE OF GREECE.

GEOGRAPHICAL POSITION OF GREECE FAVORABLE TO MARITIME COMMERCE—COMMERCIAL SPIRIT AND ENTERPRISE OF THE GREEKS, ETC.—MONEY AND COINS—TARIFF OF FOREIGN COINS PERMITTED TO CIRCULATE IN GREECE, WITH THEIR VALUE IN GREEK CURRENCY—WEIGHTS AND MEASURES—RATE OF INTEREST AND DISCOUNT—MORTGAGE LAWS—NATIONAL BANK—BANK LAWS—CUSTOMHOUSE ESTABLISHMENT—BONDING SYSTEM—THE TARIFF—IMPORT DUTIES—MARINE INSURANCE COMPANIES, ETC. ETC. ETC.

THE geographical position of Greece must convince the most superficial observer that it is pre-eminently adapted for a maritime state; for placed as she is at an equal distance from the three continents of the Old World, with an almost unlimited number of ports, bays, creeks, and roadsteads, she is enabled to carry on a large and lucrative commerce, and engross the carrying trade of the Mediterranean and Levant, without going far from home. This must appear a natural conclusion to the general observer, but even distinguished statesmen have acknowledged the superior capacity of Greece for extending her commerce and navigation. When Lord Palmerston announced to the House of Commons in 1832 the definitive settlement of the Greek affairs, and demanded its sanction to the guarantee for the new loan, he expressed his conviction, "that the commerce of Greece would in a short time rival that of Italy when in the zenith of her prosperity."

The spirit and enterprise of the Greeks have taken a commercial turn, and in spite of the difficulties they have had to contend with, have been singularly developed. These it was which kept alive the reminiscence of a country annihilated in name, and for ages nearly forgotten by the rest of Europe; and, although their commerce was carried on upon barren rocks, selected as offering the least inducement to their more refined and luxurious conquerors to settle among them, the frugal habits of the people taught them to persevere with patience till the dawn of brighter days, when the sun of liberty should shine forth triumphantly, putting an end to their humiliating condition, and uniting them as a free and independent nation in one of the most beautiful parts of the world.

On the sterile rocks and barren islands to which the Greeks flocked for

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an asylum, a population was naturally produced which could find no food at home. Hardy, temperate, and bold, they found themselves obliged to resort to the element that surrounded them for the maintenance of their wives and children ; and the education which they received in their early years in buffeting with the winds and waves, conduced to render them intrepid and experienced mariners. The sea became their element, and commerce their daily calling.

Hydra, Spetzia, and Psara were the most important of these commercial insular colonies, which were thus called into being during the wars occasioned by the French revolution, when the flags of France, Spain, and Italy, were banished from the Mediterranean, and those countries themselves deprived of their regular supplies of corn from Egypt and the Black Sea.

A few of the first vessels, after escaping the vigilance of the British blockading squadrons, and repulsing with success the attacks of the Algerine corsairs, returned to their barren islands from Genoa, Marseilles, and Cadiz, having doubled their capital in five months. This was the first impetus given to the enterprise of the islanders, who, in a short time, proceeded to Odessa and Alexandria, where they bought corn at a cheap rate, and frequently realized three times the cost price for their cargoes.

These commercial speculations not only led them to affluence, but tended greatly to increase the daring courage and intrepidity of the Greek sailors ; for exposed as they incessantly were to fierce attacks from the corsairs of the Barbary coast, they were obliged, in self-defence, to arm their vessels ; and it is a remarkable fact, that in all their numerous rencontres, there is not a single instance on record of their having been taken ; on the contrary, the pirates themselves were always either made prisoners, and obliged to walk the plank, or forced to sheer off with damage.

Such a union of commercial enterprise and personal courage, backed by success, had greatly altered their condition in thirty years. These three islands alone possessed upwards of 300 large merchantmen, a part of which were armed with heavy guns. But what particularly distinguished these hardy islanders, was the intelligence or natural sagacity (for scarcely any of them could read or write) with which they formed their speculations, and the uniform honesty and simplicity of their transactions. The crews of the vessels were mostly members of the same family ; they received no regular pay, but had a certain share in the speculation, the profits of which, when realized, were divided with the most scrupulous good faith—first the capital, than the interest, (reckoned at three per cent per month,) and, lastly, the profit.

The undertaking was carried into execution by the captain, who had the whole sum at his disposal ; nor is there any instance of fraud or embezzlement. This patriarchal honesty was most conspicuous among the Hydriots, among whom such occurrences as the following were frequent. A captain gave notice at Hydra, that he was fitting out his vessel for Odessa, to purchase grain there, and carry it for a market to Leghorn. Such of his countrymen as chose to take part in the undertaking, brought him their bags of money, which were received unopened and uncounted ; nor were even receipts made out and signed by the captain, so great was the mutual confidence. It frequently happened that even the names of the parties were not given or asked for, (both parties being perfectly illiterate,) but in no case was there ever cause of complaint. On the return

of the vessel to refit, the parties interested were invited on board, and each received his principal and share of the profit in Spanish dollars, the accounts having been made out with a piece of chalk.

The fortunes thus realized were very considerable. At Hydra, upwards of twenty families possessed a million of dollars each, and several of them had ten or a dozen ships out at the same time. M. Conduriottis was the owner of eighteen vessels of from 250 to 400 tons each. But when the revolution broke out, all these fine vessels were freely offered at the altar of their country's liberty, and the greater part of these large fortunes sacrificed in the same manner, so that at the end of the war, the whole country was reduced to its pristine poverty.

The government of Capodistria which succeeded, was not such as to give an impulse to commercial enterprise, which can alone secure to Greece a permanent rank in the scale of nations. It was no part of the president's subtle policy to encourage trade. Preferring a people devoted to agriculture, on whom he had a better hold, he treated with contempt all those engaged in mercantile pursuits, as not belonging to any political party, and liable to remove from the country, if not pleased with his government, their sole object being, as he expressed himself, to make 100 per cent profit.

Under the fostering care of the present government, the commerce and navigation of the country have made rapid strides. The king is perfectly convinced that commerce must be the main spring of the future wealth and prosperity of the kingdom; and ever since his accession to the throne, without neglecting the other branches of the state, he has kept a most vigilant eye on the development of the national industry, and introduced so many useful measures to revive, improve, and protect it, that many wealthy Greeks who were settled in Russia, Germany, Italy, and Turkey, have been induced to return and establish themselves in their native country.

Money and Coins.—On the arrival of the king, the nominal money of the country was the *Phoenix* and *Lepta*—coins introduced by Capodistria as a substitute for the Turkish piastres, which had been current in Greece for a century and a half, but which had latterly become so deteriorated in value, that whilst in 1816 five piastres were equal to a Spanish dollar, the latter was current in 1833 for twenty-four Turkish piastres. In one year alone (1832) the value of the currency was depreciated twenty per cent, which, of course, caused great inconvenience and severe losses to the commercial part of the community, particularly at Syra, where the mercantile transactions, amounting to two hundred millions of francs per annum, so severe a check was given to trade, as nearly produced a general bankruptcy, the fall in the price of all goods being equivalent to the deterioration of the metallic currency.

Capodistria saw the magnitude of the evil, but had neither the inclination nor the ability to remedy it. He published a decree, it is true, introducing a new monetary system, but was unable to enforce its execution. According to this plan, he took as an unit the sixth part of an Austrian convention dollar, to which he gave the name of *Phoenix*, and divided it into 100 parts, called *lepta*. Of these phoenix, which were coined in an old coining machine which had formerly belonged to the knights of Malta, none contained the whole, and the majority only two thirds, of the legal quantity of silver; so that he was obliged to call them in, or rather to stop

their circulation: thus the phoenix only existed on paper and in the government books, whilst the Turkish piastres continued as before the circulating medium for general purposes, and in all private transactions. His copper money was also considerably below the proper standard; and consisting as it did principally of large cumbrous pieces of twenty lepta, it of course formed a bad substitute for the diminutive Turkish coins, which, though of no intrinsic value, were exceedingly portable, and circulated throughout the Levant.

To regulate the currency and place it on a respectable footing, was one of the great problems reserved for the king's government to solve; and it must be admitted that their labors have been eminently successful.

The government took as a basis for the new monetary system the Spanish pillar dollar or colonati, a coin whose intrinsic value is well known all over the world, and which has always been especially current in the Levant. The unit chosen is called the *drachme*, and it is exactly one-sixth part of a Spanish dollar, or about four per cent more than the legal standard value of the phoenix. It is divided, like the phoenix, into 100 lepta, the superiority of the decimal system having been sufficiently proved by the experience of France, America, and other countries.

The only gold coin of Greece is the Otho d'or, which passes for twenty drachmes.

The silver coins are the Greek dollar or five drachme piece, the drachme, the half drachme, and quarter drachme.

The copper coins are pieces of ten, five, two, and one lepta.

The gold and silver coins were struck at Munich and Paris, the copper ones at Athens.

The Mint was established in 1836, and commenced its operation on the 31st August of that year. Although it was originally intended to have coined money of every description, its operations have been confined exclusively to copper, the silver coin in circulation having been found to be made at a cheaper rate at Paris and Munich.

This establishment is under the minister of finance, and consists of a director, a controller, a secretary, and the necessary number of workmen, which varies according to the work to be performed.

Since its commencement in 1836, down to the 31st of December, 1840, the mint has coined in pieces of ten, five, two, and one lepta, to the value of 662,373 drs. 71 leptas, the expenses of which were 411,367 drs., leaving a clear profit of 251,006 drs. 71 leptas.

The expense of coinage, including the metal, is as follows:—

Pieces of 10 lepta cost 4.3555 leptas.

"	5	"	2.7646	"
"	2	"	1.6588	"
"	1	"	1.3444	"

Total	20	10.1233
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Thus it appears that the greatest profit arises from pieces of 10 leptas; whilst on those of one lepta there is a loss of about 30 per cent. The profit, however, on the whole shows an average of about 100 per cent.

One of the very first acts of the new government was the publication of a royal ordonnance on the currency, (dated 20th February, 1833,) and

the introduction of the new system, the leading particulars of which are as follow :—

“ All former laws on the subject are hereby cancelled, and instead of the phoenix, the new national coin is the drachme, divided into 100 lepta. The drachme contains nine parts of fine silver, and one part of copper. The weight is $4\frac{29}{1000}$ grammes of silver, and $\frac{148}{1000}$ grammes of copper, making together $4\frac{47}{1000}$ grammes. The pieces of five drachmes, as well as the half and quarter drachme pieces, will contain the same proportions of metal and weight. All payments to the state must be made in drachmes and lepta, or those coins mentioned in the list below, and at the prices stipulated therein. The phoenix are no longer a legal tender, but they will be received by the government in payment of customs, taxes, &c., at their intrinsic value, which is ascertained to be 93 new lepta, or they will be exchanged for the new coin. The former copper coins are also called in, and will be exchanged for the new lepta at 80 per cent, or four new lepta will be given for five old. All foreign copper coins are prohibited from being used in private transactions and dealings of individuals amongst themselves, throughout the kingdom.”

TARIFF OF FOREIGN GOLD AND SILVER COINS PERMITTED TO CIRCULATE IN GREECE, WITH THEIR VALUE IN GREEK CURRENCY.

GOLD COINS.			SILVER COINS.		
	Dr.	L.		Dr.	L.
French pieces of 20 francs.....	22	33	French franc.....	1	11
British sovereigns.....	28	12	5 franc piece.....	5	58
half do.	14	06	British crown	6	40
Spanish quadruples 1722—1786...	92	60	shilling	1	28
½ do.	46	30	sixpence.....	0	64
¼ do. (pistoles).....	23	15	Russian silver rouble.....	4	41
⅓ do. (½ ditto).....	11	46	20 Kopic piece.....	0	99
⅙ do. (¼ ditto).....	5	96	Spanish pillar dollars.....	6	0
Austrian sovereigns	38	88	half do	3	0
do. ducats.....	13	06	German convention.....	5	78
Bavarian do.	13	06	Bavarian crown.....	6	36
Dutch do.	13	0	Austrian zwanzigers.....	0	95
Venetian do.	13	24	Tuscan dollars.....	6	21
Portuguese dobras.....	100	50	Roman scudi.....	5	97
moja dobras.....	50	25	Neapolitan dollars.....	5	72
			Mexican do.	6	0
			Bolivian do.	6	0
			Peruvian do.	6	0
			Rio de la Plata do.	6	0
			Colombian do.	5	78

It is to be observed in the above tariff, that all Turkish coins are excluded ; but notwithstanding this, accounts continued to be kept in piastres and paras, and importations of base Turkish money being still made for the purpose of exchanging them for the genuine Greek coins, which were exported to Turkey to melt down, the government were obliged to take vigorous measures to put a stop to this proceeding, which threatened to drain the kingdom of the new coin, and render its introduction null and void. A royal decree was therefore issued, (dated 29th August, 1833,) prohibiting altogether the use and circulation of Turkish money, and ordering any such coins as should be passed after the 13th October of the

same year to be confiscated, and the delinquents punished besides with a fine of from 100 to 500 drachmes, according to circumstances.

It is no doubt a difficult and somewhat dangerous experiment to change by an arbitrary law the currency of a whole country, sanctioned by custom from time immemorial; but in this case the bold and vigorous measures of the government were crowned with complete success. A few examples were made to show that the government was in earnest; and the Greeks soon learned to keep their accounts in the new coin, and regulate the prices of all articles by the drachme and lepta.

Weights and Measures.—Almost every article in Greece is sold by weight, even wine, oil, spirits, and other fluids, as also a great many other things which in most countries are considered too bulky and inconvenient to be sold by weight, and generally reckoned by the cubic contents, or by the barrel, sack, &c. Thus in Greece firewood, tar, coals, corn, and straw, are sold by weight.

For all these general purposes the unit of weight is the Turkish *oka* (equal to $2\frac{7}{10}$ lbs. avoirdupois,) and subdivided into 400 drachmes, ten of which are consequently equal to 1 oz. avoirdupois. For some of the more bulky and less valuable articles the price is regulated according to the *cantari*, containing 44 okas.

The only measure for length is the peeke, also a Turkish measure, and about twenty-five English inches. This is subdivided into eight roupia.

As the objections which existed to the Turkish monetary system on the score of its being liable to be altered and debased according to the arbitrary will or financial exigencies of the sultan, could not be urged against the weights and measures of Turkey, which were accurately defined and generally used throughout the Levant, the Greek government took no measures to introduce a new system till they year 1836, when several plans were proposed, and at length, after a severe scrutiny by the council of state, the government published the royal decree of the 10th of Oct., 1836, regulating the new weights and measures of the kingdom, as in the following tables:—

LONG MEASURE.

The Peeke, exactly equal to a French Metre.

The Palm, “ $\frac{1}{10}$ “

The Inch, “ $\frac{1}{100}$ “

The Line, “ $\frac{1}{1000}$ “

ROAD MEASURE.

The Stadium=1,000 Peekes, or a French Kilometre.

The Mile=10,000 Peekes, or a French Miriametre.

SQUARE MEASURE.

The Square Peeke=a Square Metre.

The Stremma=a Square Decare.

CUBIC MEASURE.

The Litra= $\frac{1}{1000}$ Cubic Peeke, or a Cubic Decimetre.

(N. B. $1\frac{1}{3}$ Litras=1 Oka, and 1 Oka= $\frac{3}{4}$ Litra.)

The Cotyli= $\frac{1}{10}$ Litra, or a Decilitra.

The Mystron= $\frac{1}{100}$ Litra, or a Centilitre.

The Cubus= $\frac{1}{1000}$ Litra, or a Millilitre.

The Kylo=100 Litra, or a Hectolitre.

WEIGHTS.

I. *For Valuable Articles.*

The Drachm is equal to the specific weight of a Kubus,
or $\frac{1}{1000}$ Litra of pure water at a mean temperature.

The Obolus = $\frac{1}{10}$ Drachm, or a Decigramme.

The Grain = $\frac{1}{100}$ Drachm, or a Centigramme.

II. *For Common and General Articles.*

The Mna = 1,500 Drachmes, or $1\frac{1}{2}$ French Kilogrammes.

The royal ordonnance then proceeds to the other particulars respecting the introduction of the new system, and ordains that the use of the old weights and measures is to cease on the 13th of January, 1837, in the communes of Athens, Nauplia, Patras, Hermopolis (Syria,) Tripolitza, Sparta, Missolonghi, Lama, and Chalcis, on the 13th of July of the same year, in the chief towns of the other governments and sub-governments, and after another six months throughout the whole kingdom.

But as this measure was not executed with the spirit and energy which characterized the introduction of the change in the monetary system, it has not as yet been carried into effect. Its failure is chiefly to be attributed to the want of a sufficient number of weights and measures, to be sold to the public at moderate prices, and adjusted and stamped by an officer of the government; and till this is done it will be quite impossible to enforce its execution.

There can be no doubt that the system is a good one; it combines great practical benefits with the facility of calculating by the decimal system, and at the same time it draws Greece closer to the great family of European nations, and breaks a link in the chain of orientalism, by which she had long been fettered. The unit of weight (the Mna) was made equal to $1\frac{1}{2}$ kilogrammes, in the view of assimilating it as much as possible to the oka, thereby to accustom the public to regulate their transactions of purchase and sale by a new system, without any very great difference in weight, and with the ulterior object of dividing it into $1\frac{1}{2}$ unit at some future time, when the people should have become habituated to make their calculations according to the decimal system. Besides this, it was at once prudent and politic, in introducing a new scale, to choose the same weights and measures as those of either England, France, or Austria, the countries with which Greece carries on the greatest trade; for then all invoices and accounts of sale made in one country would be better understood in the other, by having the same system of weights and measures; and any impartial observer will see that the complicated system of England cannot assert any claim to be adopted by a new country, whereas the simplicity of the French code is well suited for introduction into another state with which they already carry on an extensive commerce.

Interest and Discount.—Properly speaking, there is no legal rate of interest in Greece, as money is lent at different prices, according to private agreement, the credit of the borrower, and the nature of the security offered. Capodistria fixed the rate of legal interest at 8 per cent per annum, by a special decree on the subject in 1829; but, like most of his laws, it was not enforced, and the price of money has been allowed to find its own level.

During the first few years of the existence of Greece as a kingdom,

money was exceedingly scarce, and was lent at 20 to 24 per cent on mortgage of house and landed property, and 36, and even 50 per cent on personal security. This enormous rate of interest brought a good deal of foreign capital into the kingdom, which was principally expended in building at Nauplia and Athens.

As the speculators were obliged to pay so much interest for the use of the money, they made their tenants pay dearly for the use of their houses; and house rent was as dear at Nauplia and Athens, during the first three or four years, as it is in London, whilst the houses were miserably constructed.

Since the affairs of Greece have assumed a settled aspect; since the currency has been regulated, and the rights and liabilities of mortgage clearly defined, interest of money has fallen to a more moderate price, and may now be quoted at 12 per cent for first description of mortgage, 15 per cent for the second, and 18 to 24 per cent on personal security. Discount of bills, at not more than three months' date, with three signatures of good credit, may be found at Athens, Syra, and Patras, at 1 to 2 per cent per month; in other places, 2 to 3 per cent.

It will naturally be inferred from this that permanent investments of capital in Greece must produce very good interest, where such high rates are paid for temporary loans. Such is the case. Houses at Athens, if well built and in good situations, now pay 25 to 30 per cent, and during the first years, 50 to 60 per cent. Investments in gardens and vineyards produce as much, and arable land lets for half its value every year. In many cases, where people go cautiously and judiciously to work, the profit is still more considerable. Plantations of olive trees and currants are a safe and profitable investment, but require a lapse of some years before they make a return; but at the end of that term the profit is from 100 to 150 per cent per annum.

Mortgage Laws.—One of the most beneficial and successful legislative measures enacted by the king was the law of mortgage or hypothek, organizing the regulations and conditions of mortgage, which was much wanted for the proper security of property, and the facility of obtaining loans on the above security. A provisional law was issued in 1835, which gave to the justices of the peace the competency of keeping a register of mortgages for their respective jurisdictions, as an initiative and preparatory measure for the then contemplated introduction of the definitive law on the subject. In it, it was enacted that mortgages already existing, or which should be made prior to the appearance of the intended law, and inscribed in the registers of mortgage of the justices of the peace, should have priority over those not entered. These registers were merely to contain the following columns,—1. The date of insertion; 2. The Christian and family name of the mortgagee; 3. The name of the mortgager; 4. The particulars of the property mortgaged; 5. The date of the document by which the mortgage was secured; and, 6. The amount of the mortgage.

The definitive law of mortgage is dated Athens, 23d of August, 1836; and the following are the principal regulations contained in it:—

“Hypothek is a legal temporary claim on the immovable property of another person, as a security for the eventual payment of a lawful pecuniary demand, obtained by inscription in the books of mortgage appointed by this law.

“The objects of mortgage can only be, 1. Immovable property, capable

of changing owners in a legal manner, together with the appurtenances considered by law as belonging to it; and, 2. The temporary enjoyment of such property and its appurtenances.

"No mortgage can be granted on the property of a third person without his consent, nor upon that of public bodies or corporations, such as communes, monasteries, or charitable institutions, without the consent and agreement of their legal representatives or official organs, if such exist, and, if not, then of the whole of the members constituting it.

"If the mortgaged estate be deteriorated, or depreciated in value by the carelessness or dishonesty of the mortgager, the mortgagee has the right of demanding a liquidation of his claims before the expiration of the term stipulated, or of laying a complaint against him, in order to hinder further depreciation, or, lastly, to demand other security for the sum advanced.

"The right of mortgage may be obtained in three different modes; viz. 1. *By law*. The state has the right of demanding a mortgage as security for the arrears of taxes, customs-duties, &c. 2. *By verdict of a tribunal*, such as the civil courts, tribunals of commerce, &c.; and, 3. *By private will and consent*.

"The mortgage is made valid by formal inscription into the book of Hypothecations, and must be for a definite and specified sum. It can only be granted on real and actually existing property in the *bonâ fide* possession of the mortgager, and in no case on expected property.

"Mortgages on the same property take precedence according to chronological order, and if two or more are registered on the same day, they have equal rights, unless the contrary be expressly stated, and with the consent of all parties interested.

"If a mortgage is granted on any building insured at the time in a Greek or foreign insurance company, and such policy be allowed to expire without being renewed, the mortgagee may claim the immediate payment of his demand even before the expiration of the term stipulated. In like manner the mortgagee may claim the amount of his loan out of the sum to be paid by such insurance company in case of fire, provided the amount be not devoted to the rebuilding of such house or other building within one year and a day, and till then he is entitled to demand security for the eventual proper application of such funds.

"All property mortgaged is responsible as far as it goes for the interest of the loan as well as the capital advanced.

"In the principal city of each eparchy, an office for the registration of mortgages is established for the district in which it is situated.

"The registrar of mortgages is bound to keep the books under lock and key, that in his legal absence no one may alter or damage them, and he is personally responsible for their safety and being correctly kept.

"The present law comes into force on the 13th of October, 1836, and the minister of justice is charged with its publication and enforcement."

The regulations respecting the manner in which the books of mortgage are to be kept, together with the manner of examining and proving the correctness and authenticity of the title deeds of property, are published in the *Gov. Gaz.* for 1836., p. 253.

National Bank.—The quantity of arable land lying actually waste from want of capital to cultivate it, is very considerable, and his majesty's government has frequently turned its attention to the establishment of a loan

bank, and entered into negotiations with several foreign capitalists of different countries.

Mr. Wright, the indefatigable head of the late banking firm of Wright & Co., in London, and a devoted Philhellene, was the first who made proposals to the Greek government for establishing a bank in Greece, and as early as the year 1834 sent out an agent to negotiate with the ministry on the subject. He offered to establish a bank at Athens with a capital of a million sterling; to lend three quarters of this sum to the agricultural interest on mortgage at 8 per cent, and to employ the other quarter in discount at 10 per cent; but there were certain conditions respecting the circulation of bank notes and other matters on which they could not agree, and the negotiations were still carried on up to the time of the failure, which was lamented nowhere more than in Greece, where the eyes of the whole nation were turned to him in the fond expectation of seeing their hopes realized by his at length coming to terms with the government, and by the establishment of the bank.

M. Eynard, the banker of Geneva, conjointly with the house of Messrs. Laffitte & Co. of Paris, made also proposals to establish a bank with a capital of 16,000,000 of francs, at 10 per cent interest, but also imposed conditions and demanded privileges which could not well be accepted and granted by the Greek government.

An English house at Smyrna next offered a capital of 500,000*l*. Some bankers at Vienna were also willing to form a bank with a sum of 2,000,000 of florins, and the Greek merchants at Scio proposed to found a bank with a capital of 2,000,000 of Spanish dollars; but owing to the conditions offered, or the rate of interest, none of these proposals could be listened to, and the negotiations were in consequence broken off.

Lastly, the Dutch capitalists, who are the principal holders of the bonds of the two old Greek loans of 1824 and 1825, made also proposals, the conditions of which briefly were,—to advance 12,000,000 of francs to the Greek government at 5 per cent interest, for the purpose of establishing the bank for account of the latter; and out of the profits arising from the concern, by lending out the capital on mortgage at 8 or 10 per cent, to form a sinking fund with which to acknowledge and liquidate one half of the old loans at the price at which they were issued (about 56 per cent,) sinking the interest.

This proposal was likewise rejected; and the government, therefore, came to the resolution of establishing the bank single-handed, interesting themselves for a certain amount as private individuals, and letting it rest on its own merits to find supporters and shareholders among the moneyed men of Europe generally.

In consequence of this, the bank charter, of which the following is a correct translation, appeared in the spring of last year, and the establishment is now being formed.

Bank Law.

We Otho, by the grace of God, &c.;

In consideration of the joint representations of our ministers of the interior and finances, and after having heard the opinion of our council of state, will and ordain as follows:—

Art. 1. A national bank shall be established in the capital of our king-

dom in the form of an anonymous society, (joint stock bank,) which may have branches in other parts of our kingdom.

Art. 2. The capital of the bank is fixed for the present at 5,000,000 of drachmes, which may be increased according to the wants of the country on receiving the sanction of our government.

Art. 3. The capital stock of the bank is divided into 5,000 shares, each of 1,000 drachmes. The shares may be divided into halves and quarters, if required. The government will take at least 1,000 shares; the rest may be taken by Greeks and foreigners without distinction.

Art. 4. The shares will be made out either in the name of the shareholder or the bearer, as may be required, and the liability of the shareholders is limited to the amount of their respective shares.

Art. 5. The bank will be considered constituted as soon as 2,600 shares are subscribed for.

Art. 6. The total number of shareholders of the bank will be represented by a general assembly of the shareholders, or their representatives resident at Athens. The exact number representing the whole body will be fixed in the by-laws, which will be duly published.

Art. 7. The direction of the affairs of the bank will be invested in a committee elected at a general meeting.

Art. 8. In order to ensure the adherence of the committee of management to the statutes and by-laws, a royal commissioner will be appointed by us, who, under the injunction of the strictest secrecy in the discharge of his duty, will have the right of examining the books, papers, and vouchers of the bank; of being present at the private sittings of the board and at general meetings, to learn the real state of affairs, and to convince himself that the business of the bank is carried on conformably to the statutes and regulations. He is also specially enjoined to keep an eye upon, and is personally responsible for the punctual fulfilment of the provisions of this law, as respects the issuing of paper money, which, previous to being put in circulation, must be countersigned by him. In all cases of contravention, the royal commissioner is bound to make the necessary representations to the board of management, and if no notice is taken by them, to report the case to our government, and the measure must remain in suspense till the decision of government be known; but should such decision not be made within thirty days, the bank is at liberty to execute the measure in question or dispute.

Art. 9. The operations of the bank will be—1. Making loans on mortgage and deposit; and, 2. Discounting.

Art. 10. Any other operations than those contained in the last article are prohibited. In the course of time, however, with the consent of the general proprietors and the approbation of government, other branches of business may be introduced.

Art. 11. The bank will make loans in legally circulating specie on mortgage of immoveable property situated within this kingdom, and also on deposits of gold and silver. Four fifths of the capital to be employed in this manner. It is understood that all loans, and the interest on them, are to be calculated and repaid at the pure intrinsic value of the drachme at the time the loan was made.

Art. 12. The annual rate of interest for loans on mortgage and pledges can never exceed 10 per cent.

Art. 13. The bank will not make any loan above one half the value of the

property mortgaged, nor above four fifths of the worth of the pledge. The value of both will be adjusted by agents appointed by the bank, and bound to execute their duty according to the provisions contained in their instructions, which will be published with the by-laws. The expenses attending such valuations, as well as the registration of mortgages, must be borne by the borrowers.

Art. 14. Whenever the value of a mortgaged property is enhanced by the money lent by the bank and expended on it, the bank may make a second loan conformably to the provisions of the last article.

Art. 15. Borrowers are at liberty to make arrangements with the bank for the repayment of their loans, either at stated periods or by way of annuities.

Art. 16. Should any borrower who has made such arrangement with the bank wish notwithstanding to repay his loan previously, either wholly or in part, he may do so upon giving the bank three months' notice of his intention.

Art. 17. The term for loans made on pledges cannot exceed one year, but on the payment of the interest it may be renewed.

Art. 18. As soon as the pledges are deposited with the bank they are considered as security for the sum advanced, whoever may be the owner.

Art. 19. The bank is at liberty to discount bills, and is empowered to employ one fifth of its capital in this manner. Whenever a part of the capital set apart for loans on mortgage and pledges is disposable, it may be employed provisionally in discounting till demands are made for loans upon mortgage or pledge. For this purpose the bank has the right of issuing bank notes payable to the bearer; the amount of which, however, cannot exceed two fifths of the existing capital stock of the bank. As a security to the public for the notes in circulation, it is bound to keep in ready money at least one fourth of the amount issued, to meet the demand for changing the notes; and for the other three fourths, to make over the title-deeds of property mortgaged to the bank for double the value of such bank notes.

Art. 20. The bank notes, whose value must be expressed in Greek currency, cannot be for a less amount than twenty-five drachmes; and the public are not compelled to take them, but the bank and its branches are bound to exchange them on presentation for specie legally circulating in the kingdom, without any difficulty or remarks.

Art. 21. The bank notes must be countersigned by the royal commissioner. Any paper money put in circulation by the bank without the signature of the commissioner must be called in immediately by the bank, which incurs thereby a fine of three times the value of such notes, to be paid into the state treasury. One third of the fines goes to the informer. The bank notes are stamp-free.

Art. 22. The articles 248 and 258 of the Penal Code are applicable in all cases of forgery and uttering forged notes.

Art. 23. The annual rate of interest for discounting cannot exceed 8 per cent; but in cases of public emergency the government may allow the bank to raise the rate of discount provisionally.

Art. 24. The bank will be represented in all lawsuits in our courts of justice by the directors.

Art. 25. When a mortgager refuses to pay the interest or annuity due, the bank has the right to seize his moveable property, and have it sold to

cover its demand. Should he refuse a second time, or have no such moveable property the first time, the loan will be considered as at an end, and the mortgaged property sold by public auction according to the provisions of the civil code.

Art. 26. If persons who borrow of the bank on deposits of pledges neglect to repay the loan at the stated period, such pledges may be sold by public auction by the bank without any further judicial proceedings, but according to the forms marked out in such cases by the existing laws.

Art. 27. Every lawsuit of the bank is considered summary and pressing, and as such takes precedence of all other suits in our courts of justice.

Art. 28. The bank is simply a private institution.

Art. 29. The board of management are bound to lay before the minister of the interior a general view of the state of the affairs of the bank every year.

Art. 30. The existence of the bank is fixed for the period of twenty-five years, provided the government should not be induced to extend it, at the instance of the shareholders.

Art. 31. At its liquidation the bank is bound to deposit in the state treasury cash to the amount of the whole sum of bank notes then in circulation. If after the lapse of three years, and public notice having been given to the holders of notes, they are not all presented, such outstanding ones lose their value, and are considered forfeited to the bank.

Art. 32. Every former bank law is rescinded after the publication of the present one.

Art. 33. Our secretary of state for the interior is charged with the publication and execution of the present law.

Given at Athens, 11th of April, 1841.

(Signed) OTHO.

The by-laws contain the regulations for the internal management of the bank, the general meetings, mode of transferring shares, &c.

The general meeting is held every year, and is composed of the fifty largest shareholders, or their representatives duly appointed.

The committee of management is composed of a president, vice-president, two ordinary and two supernumerary directors, who are elected every two years by ballot at the general meeting. They may be re-elected after the expiration of the above period. The president and vice-president are not permitted to do any business on their own private account. The directors are at liberty to engage in any commercial undertaking that they think proper. The treasurer, secretary, and clerks, are appointed by the committee of management.

Bills offered to the bank for discount must be furnished with the signatures of three solvent respectable firms, and cannot be for more than at three month's date.

Private Banks.—There are only two in Greece, both discount banks: one of them at Athens, founded by M. Eynard, of Geneva, with a capital of 500,000 francs, for the purpose of discounting local bills with the signatures of three good firms, and for not more than at ninety days' date, at a fixed rate of eight per cent per annum.

The other private bank is established at the Piræus by an English house; it lends money on mortgage, and discounts bills at the price of the day, and according to private agreement between the parties.

Stamps.—Stamps were introduced in the year 1836 as a fiscal measure,

and cannot be said to press heavily on the commercial community, particularly as they have been greatly reduced, as regards bills of exchange and bills of lading.

Chambers of Commerce.—There exist at present but three, viz. at Nauplia, Syra, and Patras; but the royal ordonnance, which is dated 3d of June, 1836, permits others to be formed in such places as may be deemed necessary by the mercantile community.

The chambers of commerce consist each of six ordinary and three extra members, from the first of whom the president and secretary are elected. Any merchant of good reputation and general commercial information, established and resident for at least five years in the place where the chamber is formed, is eligible to become a member. The members are chosen in the same manner as the judges of the tribunals of commerce, under the immediate auspices of the governor of the province, and are elected for the term of three years. Every year one third of the number go out of office in rotation, but may be re-elected. The chamber of commerce may fill up vacancies in their number arising from death or other causes, out of the latest list of persons eligible for the office of judge of the commercial tribunal.

The office of member of the chamber of commerce being considered an honorable distinction, the post is purely honorary, the members receiving no remuneration for their services.

The chambers of commerce are formed for the purpose of imparting to the government their views and advice on mercantile subjects; particularly on the existing obstacles to the development and increase of commerce, and the means best adapted to counteract and remove them; and further, to superintend and watch over the execution of the public works and establishments relating to trade and shipping; such as, for instance, the cleaning, deepening, and improving of harbors, the building of quays, quarantine establishments, canals and railroads, the mercantile navy, commercial schools, customhouse regulations, &c.

The chambers of commerce may meet and deliberate on any question coming within their jurisdiction as often as they think proper, or they may be called upon by government to do so. The meetings are convened by the president after communicating with the governor of the province, who, if able to attend, presides at the meeting; and if not, the chair is taken by the president.

Commercial Tribunals.—These courts are formed for the purpose of taking cognisance of disputes on mercantile subjects, and exist at present only at Nauplia, Patras, and Syra.

The jurisdiction of these courts is thus laid down by the royal decree of the 14th of May, 1835:—

The tribunals of commerce have the power to give judgment in all cases of dispute which have reference to the liabilities, agreements, and contracts of merchants, bankers, and tradesmen; and also in all mercantile affairs, whether the parties are commercial men or not.

The following are considered as mercantile transactions, and belong to the jurisdiction of the court;—Purchases of goods and merchandise to sell again in the raw state, or manufactured; all affairs of factories, commission business, shipping, and sending away goods by land or by sea; all agencies and public contracts; bill-brokers' and banking business; the operations of public banks; the liabilities of merchants and traders amongst

themselves ; bills of exchange or remittances of money sent from one place to another, whether the parties belong to the commercial community or not ; the building and fitting out of merchant ships, whether coasters or engaged in the foreign trade ; the sale of cordage, provisions, and stores ; loans on bottomry bonds ; insurances on ships and goods ; agreements with sailors, &c.

The above tribunals are competent to give a verdict in cases of complaints between principals and clerks, as far as regards their mutual mercantile relations ; and, lastly, in all cases of fraudulent bankruptcy.

There is no appeal from the decisions of the commercial courts in the following cases :—1. Where the amount in dispute is under 800 drs. ; and 2. Where the parties express their determination to abide by the issue of the verdict.

It may be here observed, that the mercantile laws of Greece are founded on the French commercial code, with but few and trifling alterations.

The Customhouse Establishment is composed of twenty-five chief customhouses, sixty-three under-customs, and thirty-three stations, forming a total of 179 ports. Their business is very considerable, but chiefly confined to the coasting or home trade, free intercourse without payment of duty being now permitted between all the Greek ports, which was not the case under Capodistria, who introduced the unjust and oppressive system that all goods were liable to the same duties at every port, and wherever they came from ; and thus not only were the goods and produce of one part of Greece obliged to pay the import duty in another Greek port, but foreign articles, imported originally at Syra for instance, after paying the import duty, and being reshipped perhaps to Navarin, paid duty a second time, and then when reshipped to a smaller port, the same thing occurred, which tended greatly to restrict commerce, and greatly enhance the price of every article to the consumer.

To oppose, however, the greatest possible obstacles to smuggling, the trade with foreign countries is limited to the twenty-five chief customhouse ports ; but an exception has latterly been made in favor of some of the second-rate ports. The whole of the customhouse system, however, is still very defective ; the facility for smuggling and the inducements to bribery are great, and the control is not sufficiently extensive. A reform has been long talked of, and is much wanted.

Bonding System.—This is also exceedingly bungling and faulty. The original plan introduced by Capodistria was to admit foreign goods to be imported and deposited in transit till their exportation *on the payment of 1 per cent ad valorem on small goods, and 2 per cent on bulky articles, every three months !* This was only repealed in 1836, on the representation of a foreign merchant, who had some articles of merchandise of this description placed in transit at Syra, and which he kept there for three years in expectation of a rise in the market, supposing that the 2 per cent was for the whole period : as he had to pay warehouse rent besides, he was not a little surprised at the lapse of that period to find himself called upon to pay 24 per cent for transit duty, making in addition to 10 per cent in all 34 per cent.

It was then altered as follows :—Small and valuable articles pay 1 per cent ad valorem for *every four months*, if warehoused in government stores. Bulky articles of small value may be deposited in private warehouses under the customhouse lock on payment of 1 per cent ad valorem, if for less

than two years, and 4 per cent if kept in government stores. The following articles come under the latter category :—1. Firewood ; timber for house and ship building ; wooden articles, as chairs and other furniture, shovels, hoops, sieves, &c. 2. Corn, pulse, almonds in the shell, nuts, valonea, &c. 3. Coils of ropes. 4. Earthenware, dangerous and inflammable articles, and those emitting a disagreeable smell, are to be warehoused in private stores.

The only bonding ports in the kingdom are Nauplia, Patras, Syra, and Piræus, to which Hydra was added in 1835, in consideration of its being declared a free port in 1830 by the provisional government.

The Tariff.—This branch of the national system also requires a complete revision. The tariff at present in force was published by Capodistria, and is dated Nauplia, 11th of April, 1830. The import duties are based on the principle of 10 per cent, and the exports at 6 per cent. The following are the import and export duties on those articles specified in the tariff. All others pay 10 and 6 per cent respectively.

Articles.		IMPORT DUTIES.	
		Duty.	
		Drs.	Lep.
Alum	per oka	2	80
Bottles	per 100	2	0
Biscuits	per cantar	2	0
Beer, in bottles	per dozen	1	0
do in casks	per oka	0	15
Books		free.	
Butter, Black Sea	do	0	15
European	do	0	30
Coffè, Mocha	do	0	40
other sorts	do	0	25
Cloves	do	1	0
Camphor	do	1	20
Cordage, tarred	per cantar	4	0
not tarred	do	5	20
Chocolate	per oka	0	60
Cheese, Eastern	do	0	12
European	do	0	20
Corks	per cantar	2	80
Caviar	per oka	0	20
Cattle, horned		free.	
Horses for agricultural purposes—Mules—Asses		do	
Dates	per cantar	1	0
Elephants' teeth	per oka	0	80
Flax	do	0	20
Galls, black	do	0	30
green	do	0	10
Gum Arabic	do	0	60
Gunpowder	do	0	30
Grain :—			
Wheat	per kilo	0	15
Barley and rye	do	0	6
Turkish corn (maize)	do	0	10

Articles.			Duty.	
			Drs.	Lep.
Hams and sausages	per oka	0	30
Hats, best	each	3	20
second quality	do	2	0
Hemp	per oka	0	10
Indigo	do	3	60
Implements (agricultural and technical)		ad val.	3 per cent.	
Lead pencils	per 1000	1	20
Metals:—				
Iron, in sheets	per cantar	1	60
bar and hoop	do	2	0
Tin plates	per box	6	0
Silver, in bars and unstamped		free.	
Tin	per cantar	14	0
Quicksilver	per oka	1	20
Lead	per cantar	2	0
White lead	do	5	20
Brass	do	8	0
Brass in sheets	per oka	0	60
Copper	do	0	40
Steel	per cantar	3	60
Macaroni	per oka	0	12
Nails	per cantar	4	80
Nutmegs	per oka	2	0
Opium	do	5	20
Olives	do	0	4
Onions	per cantar	0	40
Pepper	per oka	0	25
Pimento	do	0	40
Pitch	per cantar	0	80
Rice	per oka	0	4
Sesame seed	do	0	6
Saltpetre	do	0	15
Spirits of wine	do	0	15
Stockfish	per cantar	2	40
Salt		prohibited.	
Saffron	per oka	1	40
Sugar loaves	do	0	30
crushed	do	0	20
raw	do	0	12
Shot	do	0	10
Salt fish	do	0	15
Silk, raw	do	7	20
Snuff	do	0	80
Segars	do	2	40
Tar	do	1	20
Tongues, smoked	per dozen	0	15
Tobacco, raw	per oka	1	0
Tea, black	do	1	60
green	do	3	20
Tiles	per 1000	2	20

Articles.				Duty.	
				Drs.	Lep.
Timber for shipbuilding	.	.	ad. val.	5	per cent.
for houses	.	.	do	7	do
Vermicelli	.	.	per oka	0	12
Vitriol	.	.	per cantar	1	20
Wax, yellow	.	.	per oka	0	40
Wool, unwashed	.	.	per cantar	3	20
washed	.	.	do	5	0
Wine, common	.	.	per barrel	4	0
fine	.	.	per oka	0	60

EXPORT DUTIES.

Articles.				Duty.	
				Drs.	Lep.
Bristles	.	.	.	free.	
Cattle :—					
Buffaloes	.	.	per head	12	0
Oxen	.	.	do	10	0
Cows	.	.	do	6	0
Calves	.	.	do	4	0
Mules	.	.	do	6	0
Horses of burden	.	.	do	6	0
Sheep	.	.	do	0	60
Lambs	.	.	do	0	30
Silver, uncoined	.	.	per drachm	0	5
Sponge, virgin, washed	.	.	per oka	0	60
“ unwashed	.	.	do	0	40
ordinary, washed	.	.	do	0	20
“ unwashed	.	.	do	0	10

Marine Insurance Companies.—Several of these establishments have been formed as joint stock companies ; the principal of which are—

The Greek Insurance Company, established at Syra in . . .	1837.
The Company of Friends of Insurance	1838.
The Hermes (Mercury)	1838.
The Achaian Marine Insurance Company, Patras	1836.

The only foreign insurance company that has an agency in Greece is the Trieste Company, called the “Adriatic Union of Security,” which has an establishment at Athens.

Foreign Trade.—The commerce of Greece with foreign countries has greatly increased within the last five years, and is by no means inconsiderable.

At Constantinople there are between 11,000 and 12,000 Greek subjects (exclusive of the Rayahs or Greeks subject to the Porte,) partly engaged in commerce, and partly in exercising different trades ; whilst the residents of all other powers together do not amount to above 5,000.

The number of Greek subjects who leave the country furnished with regular passports from the foreign office is about 2,000 every year. The crews of the Greek vessels engaged in the foreign trade amount to about 10,000 ; and we may safely calculate that at least 3,000 other persons go to Turkey, Asia Minor, Egypt, and the Barbary coast, where passports are not required ; making on the whole about 15,000 annually.

The following table, taken from the reports of the several Greek consuls at the undermentioned places, shows the approximative value of the imports and exports in Greek bottoms at the respective ports for the year 1840:—

<i>Ports.</i>	<i>Imports. Drs.</i>	<i>Exports. Drs.</i>
Constantinople	20,000,000	12,000,000
Smyrna	10,520,000	2,800,000
Volo	2,000,000	1,500,000
Zante	2,200,000	2,450,000
Trieste	15,000,000	11,500,000
Tenedos	500,000	200,000
Salonica	150,000	200,000
Galatz	4,100,000	2,100,000
Odessa	2,000,000	5,000,000
Canea	1,300,000	1,100,000
Heracium	1,400,000	1,800,000
Marseilles	6,000,000	15,000,000
Leghorn	2,560,000	6,000,000
Rhodes	2,000,000	1,500,000
Beyrout	500,000	360,000
Enos	150,000	200,000
Prevesa	200,000	180,000
Corfu	2,200,000	1,100,000
Venice	3,000,000	7,500,000
Genoa	1,000,000	3,000,000
Tunis	750,000	300,000
Gibraltar	2,000,000	4,000,000
Alexandria	10,000,000	12,000,000
Totals	89,530,000	91,790,000

The value of the foreign trade in Greek vessels at the other ports where there are consuls and vice-consuls is not reported; though at some of them, such as Malta, the Dardanelles, Damietta, Tripolis, and Algiers, it is considerable.

Tables showing the extent of Commercial Traffic carried on between the ports of Greece and Trieste respectively, from the years 1835 to 1840, both inclusive.

No. 1. EXPORTS FROM GREECE TO TRIESTE.

<i>Articles.</i>	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.
	<small>CWT.</small>	<small>CWT.</small>	<small>CWT.</small>	<small>CWT.</small>	<small>CWT.</small>	<small>CWT.</small>
Madder.....	495	285	201	447	1,027	1,068
Wax.....	152	297	589	339	480	189
Cotton.....	669	2,454	4,155	4,985	8,199	722
Cheese.....	1,208	1,709	4,012	1,590	1,109	161
Figs.....	23,234	15,101	17,005	12,827	20,400	26,435
Currants.....	23,432	8,691	16,500	34,437	50,031	25,530
Wool.....	2,262	7,335	922	7,026	25,910	5,090
Olive oil.....	5,200	6,655	7,734	6	313	2,912
Skins.....	676	939	471	757	2,870	800
Linseed.....	1,899	872	8,555	5,613	5,930	1,784
Silk, raw.....	151	414	269	297	660	491
Sponge.....	1,942	760	1,429	2,640	3,636	4,021
Valonea.....	18,234	39,793	19,372	6,752	22,600	44,528
Tobacco.....		54	203	2,779	905	4,016

No. 2. IMPORTATIONS INTO GREECE FROM TRIESTE.

Articles.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.
Steel..... cwt.	595	1,066	1,070	510	922	976
Coffee..... do	3,502	4,947	5,780	11,776	10,772	10,869
Hemp..... do	490	469	627	705	1,068	1,047
Paper..... cases	396	715	1,609	185	1,082	526
Ironmongery..... do	211	177	119	60	270	295
Nails..... casks	3,228	1,771	1,210	594	1,799	2,336
Drugs..... cases	174	183	133	312	1,047	568
Flour..... cwt.	773	684	1,916	245	1,346	1,488
Iron, raw..... do	4,794	1,654	3,067	3,951	2,279	2,155
Timber..... No.	105,675	35,855	31,356	25,147	53,903	63,846
Planks..... do	498,188	312,300	426,593	67,302	1,267,851	1,480,379
Manufactures, packages	1,109	813	2,442	1,284	1,960	1,280
Glassware..... crates	963	1,092	988	297	1,355	1,071
Earthenware..... do	97	228	189	140	234	78
Salt fish..... cwt	1,514	2,148	4,140	762		3,852
Rice..... do	2,570	1,499	1,614	990	3,216	1,506
Sugar, raw..... do	172	1,530				
refined..... do	264	66	1,242	1,039	1,156	2,006
Leather..... do	994	680	1,543	3,593	2,016	2,449

The principal articles exported to other countries and imported into Greece, are the following :—

Exports :—Currants, corn, cotton, cheese, figs, honey, lemons, madder, oil, skins, salt, silk, sesame seed, sponges, tobacco, vermilion, wool, and wine.

Imports :—Live animals, butter, corn, caviar, coffee, drugs and medicines, earthenware, flour, glassware, cutlery, gunpowder, hides, hemp, indigo, macaroni, metals, manufactures generally, nails, paper, rice, salt fish, spices, spirits, soda, sugar, soap, and timber.

Treaties of Commerce, &c.—The following is a list of the different treaties existing between Greece and other nations, with the date of the year in which they were concluded.

Nature of Treaty.	Country with which made.	Date.
Friendship and Alliance.	Bavaria.	1833.
	Austria.	1835.
Commerce and Navigation.	Great Britain.	1838.
	Sweden and Norway.	1838.
	United States of America.	1838.
	Prussia.	1839.
	Wurtemberg.	1834.
	Baden.	1835.
	Two Sicilies.	1838.
	Bavaria.	1836.
	Saxony.	1836.
Right of free Emigration.	Hanover.	1835.
	Switzerland.	1837.
	Sardinia.	1839.
	Prussia.	1839.
	Naples.	1837.
	Sweden.	1838.

TREATIES OF COMMERCE, ETC.—*Continued.*

<i>Nature of Treaty.</i>	<i>Country with which made.</i>	<i>Date.</i>
Reciprocity of Port Charges.	Sweden and Norway.	1835.
	Papal Dominions.	1834.
	Ionian Republic.	1835.
	Tuscany.	1835.
	Holland.	1835.
	Austria.	1835.
	Russia.	1835.
	Denmark.	1835.
	Spain.	1834.
	United States of America.	1837.
	Hanover.	1836.
	Bremen.	1835.
	Lubeck.	1835.
	Hamburg.	1836.
Post-Office Treaties.	France.	1838.
	Austria.	1834.

Greek Consulates in Foreign Countries.—There are 11 consuls-general, 38 consuls, and 29 vice-consuls ;—in all 78.

Consulates-General :—At Odessa, Vienna, Stockholm, Lisbon, London, Paris, Amsterdam, Leghorn, Naples, Alexandria, and Bucharest.

Consulates :—Amsterdam, Taganrok, Moscow, Hamburg, Bremen, Leipzig, Lubeck, Cologne, Mayence, Copenhagen, Barcelona, Balearic Islands, Cadiz, Malaga, Marseilles, Trieste, Ancona, Civita Vecchia, Venice, Genoa, Messina, Liverpool, Belfast, Malta, Dublin, Boston, New York, Tauris, Smyrna, Candia, Dardanelles, Beyrout, Salonica, Prevesa, Cairo, Damietta, Jassy, and Tunis.

Vice-Consulates :—Ismaël, Semlin, Toulon, Algiers, Algesira, Plymouth, Falmouth, Gibraltar, Brindisi, Leghorn, Cagliari, Naples, Porto-Ferraro, Palermo, Nice, Galatz, Ibraïla, Adrianople, Enos, Jaffa, Tripolis, Volo, Rhodes, Heraclium, Kydonia, Jannina, Cephalonia, Corfu, and Zante.

GENERAL TABLE OF THE IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF GREECE IN 1839.

<i>Description of Goods.</i>	<i>Value of Imports.</i>		<i>Value of Exports.</i>	
	<i>Drs.</i>	<i>Lep.</i>	<i>Drs.</i>	<i>Lep.</i>
Almonds	17,397	0	1,021	55
Aniseed	4,397	0	964	18
Animals (live) for food .	255,132	0	268,562	50
for agriculture	791,680	0	355,384	50
Butter	63,637	50	5,098	52
Brooms	125	20		
Citrons			16,065	20
Cochinille	1,109	0		
Cotton	8,842	20	68,087	80
Curds	227			
Chestnuts	40,215	55	2,749	0
Candles (Tallow) . .	8,044	60		

GENERAL TABLE OF THE IMPORTS, ETC.—Continued.

Description of Goods.	Value of Imports.		Value of Exports.	
	Drs.	Lep.	Drs.	Lep.
Corn (all descriptions) .	2,979,165	20	304,649	0
Chocolate	1,427	0		
Cheese	74,114	7	86,814	94
Cork	2,216	0		
Caviar	172,168	0		
Coffee	298,451	0		
Chalva	94,168	0		
Drugs and medicines .	51,357	45		
Dates	9,827	0		
Earthenware	86,450	17		
Flour	24,945	25		
Fruit, fresh	51,211	22	2,327	76
dried (raisins and currants)	117,903	70	2,670,518	69
(figs)	15,123	0	346,490	0
walnuts	20,161	25	748	40
Fish, fresh	29,843	25		
salted	459,619	56		
rose	5,013	0		
Galls	776	50	1,558	50
Glass ware	138,372	40		
Gunpowder	31,611	0		
Hams	25,267	0		
Hats	18,681	70		
Hemp	296	0	5,027	28
Honey	1,831	0	34,363	19
Incense	15,781	80		
Indigo	54,795	50		
Liquors (wine, beer, and spirits)	458,647	86	662,485	0
Lemons	3,818	0	70,181	0
Macaroni, Vermicelli, &c.	26,680	10	409	80
Madder			37,673	0
Metals	968,214	0		
Mastic	17,615	0		
Manufactures of silk .	213,520	0	13,654	0
wool	1,229,758	85	7,391	0
cotton	3,611,939	29	43,995	0
straw	70,961	40		
wood	157,777	17	327	80
linen	136,184	55		
gold and silver				
thread	14,870	0		
leather	31,495	50		
metal	265,608	77	4,310	0
bone	20,724	45		
sundries	488,884	42	139,414	20
Nuts, hazel	16,127	0		
pistachio	112,205	0	1,276	36

GENERAL TABLE OF THE IMPORTS, ETC.—*Continued.*

Description of Goods.	Value of Imports.		Value of Exports.	
	Drs.	Lep.	Drs.	Lep.
Nails	240,390	32		
Onions	14,213	80	11,609	50
Oranges	24,710	14	1,669	48
Olives	43,589	50	6,295	6
Olive oil	141,544	30	409,984	26
Paper	182,746	0		
Potatoes	10,061	0	285	39
Perfumery	70,927	0		
Pulse of all descriptions	99,591	81	12,276	14
Pitch	9,304	97	78	52
Preserves	5,796	0	746	0
Pearl barley	621	0		
Rice	407,839	84		
Skins and hides	829,734	38	52,223	30
Sulphur	9,818	20		
Soda	25,986	70		
Salt			20,006	0
Sugar	721,827	65		
Silk, raw	924	50	910,139	0
Soap	419,309	91	1,557	50
Salep	160	0		
Sesame	2,736	0	15,996	35
Sponge	6,121	50	178,539	0
Sundries	140,508	25	10,160	75
Tallow, raw	4,930	0	40	0
Tow	19,870	0	6,612	0
Tar	2,968	25	5,192	94
Tobacco	138,079	2	14,318	80
Vermilion			159,268	0
Wool, sheep's	905	80	205,758	59
Wood for shipbuilding	346,822	13	3,538	50
dyes	135,152	25		
houses	769,563	52	40,059	87
fire	70,346	10	11,876	0
Totals	18,599,167	52	7,330,438	94

Table showing the value (in drachmes) of the Annual Imports, Exports, Transit, and Coasting Trade of the Kingdom of Greece for the years 1833 to 1840 inclusive.

Year.	Imports.	Exports.	Transit.	Coasting Trade.	Total.
1833	12,267,773	5,534,219	6,007,310	3,000,000	26,809,302
1834	16,438,363	6,772,110	8,500,000	4,000,000	35,710,473
1835	16,179,145	9,779,900	11,312,754	7,086,988	44,358,787
1836	15,905,389	12,803,222	13,191,549	6,327,014	48,227,174
1837	18,374,617	7,522,307	25,091,075	7,121,563	58,109,562
1838	21,751,283	6,739,770	31,384,630	8,435,450	68,311,133
1839	18,599,167	7,330,438	28,325,053	9,352,758	63,607,416
1840	20,270,004	8,748,477	41,663,195	8,124,465	78,806,141

Customs.—The customhouse establishment was organized on its present footing, by the royal ordonnance of the 30th of September, 1836; the system pursued till then being that which was introduced by Capodistria in 1829, and continued by the regency, with a few trifling modifications.

The line of coast and the islands are divided into twenty-five customhouse districts, of which five are of the first class, seven of the second, and thirteen of the third. Each of these is subdivided into under customhouses, customhouse stations, and coast-guard stations.

There are twenty-five head customhouses, sixty-three under customhouses, thirty-three customhouse stations, and fifty-eight coast-guard stations, making together one hundred and seventy-nine ports with customhouse authorities.

Free intercourse is permitted between all the respective ports for goods and merchandise, grain, and cattle, either the produce of the country, or of foreign growth or manufacture, if originally imported at a legal port, and if the duty has been paid at the customhouse, which will appear from the manifest and clearance of the vessel.

The principal customhouses are under the immediate control of the minister of finance, from whom they receive their instructions, and to whom all reports and communications are made. The under customhouses, &c. are under the control of the principal one in each district.

The chief customhouses are divided into two main districts; twelve are in the eastern, and thirteen in the western district, for each of which a chief inspector of customs is appointed, with the rank and pay of a ministerial assessor; the seat of the former is at Syra, that of the latter at Patras. Their duty is to inspect the books and vouchers of the customhouses in their districts.

The officers of the customs are entitled to wear the uniform of the civil servants of the crown, as contained in the decree of the 18th of April, 1833, in the analogous grades, and with the same distinctive embroidery, epaulettes, &c.; and all customhouse functionaries are permitted, *ex officio*, to carry fire-arms, without the usual certificate from the police.

ART. II.—PROGRESS OF POPULATION AND WEALTH IN THE UNITED STATES, IN FIFTY YEARS,

AS EXHIBITED BY THE DECENNIAL CENSUS TAKEN IN THAT PERIOD.

CHAPTER IV.

THE CENSUS OF 1820, BEING THE FOURTH DECENNIAL ENUMERATION UNDER THE CONSTITUTION.

THIS census was the first which made any discrimination in the colored part of the population, either as to sex or age. It distributed the males and females, both of the free colored persons and slaves, under the four following divisions, viz: those who were under fourteen; who were fourteen and under twenty-six; who were twenty-six and under forty-five; and who were forty-five and upwards.

It made no change in the distribution of the whites, except to add a column for those males who were between the ages of sixteen and eighteen.

The result may be seen in the four following tables.

TABLE I.—SHOWING THE WHITE POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES ON THE 1st OF AUGUST, 1820.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	MALES.					TOTAL.	FEMALES.					TOTAL.
	Under 10.	10 and under 16.	Between 16 and 18.	16 and under 26.	26 and under 45.	45 and upwards.	Under 10.	10 and under 16.	16 and under 26.	26 and under 45.	45 and upwards.	
Maine.....	49,217	24,528	7,146	28,530	27,742	19,178	46,565	23,982	30,823	28,948	18,527	148,145
New Hampshire...	35,466	19,672	5,529	22,703	22,956	18,413	34,599	18,899	24,806	25,797	19,925	124,026
Vermont.....	35,708	19,241	5,860	24,137	22,035	16,189	35,327	18,577	24,713	23,683	15,236	117,536
Massachusetts.....	70,993	38,573	10,912	49,506	54,414	38,668	69,260	38,308	52,805	57,721	46,171	264,265
Rhode Island.....	11,530	5,860	1,767	7,596	7,618	5,888	10,917	5,769	8,407	8,671	7,157	40,921
Connecticut.....	36,848	20,682	6,284	25,731	25,632	21,814	30,707	19,833	27,205	29,069	25,078	136,454
New York.....	222,608	104,297	29,598	132,733	138,634	81,259	216,513	101,904	132,492	129,899	72,385	653,193
New Jersey.....	42,055	19,970	5,956	24,639	24,418	18,537	39,921	19,504	25,637	24,693	18,035	137,790
Pennsylvania.....	175,381	77,050	25,901	102,550	97,144	64,493	166,710	78,425	101,404	94,345	59,592	500,476
Delaware.....	9,071	4,448	1,719	5,516	5,607	3,263	27,905	8,657	4,311	5,573	5,337	27,377
Maryland.....	41,511	18,952	6,261	26,404	27,916	16,960	39,454	19,578	27,293	26,347	15,807	128,479
Dist' of Columbia....	3,276	1,540	550	2,171	2,893	1,291	3,319	1,640	2,518	2,615	1,351	11,443
Virginia.....	103,963	45,762	13,148	58,863	57,898	38,245	98,485	45,766	62,411	55,995	35,686	298,343
North Carolina.....	75,488	32,912	9,748	39,527	36,264	25,453	70,998	33,101	42,253	38,069	25,135	209,556
South Carolina.....	42,658	18,258	5,877	23,984	22,115	13,919	39,891	18,741	23,662	20,939	13,273	116,506
Georgia.....	35,444	14,743	4,215	19,483	17,874	10,869	33,177	14,937	18,642	15,365	9,041	91,162
Kentucky.....	83,050	36,004	10,323	41,328	38,178	25,136	77,641	35,120	41,905	35,483	20,799	210,948
Tennessee.....	67,746	28,497	7,472	31,028	27,549	18,780	63,419	27,770	31,569	27,931	15,638	166,927
Ohio.....	111,683	45,858	12,607	57,008	54,432	31,626	106,036	44,106	53,337	48,797	23,689	275,965
Indiana.....	29,629	11,454	3,270	14,428	14,072	7,066	27,684	10,707	13,635	12,009	5,074	69,109
Mississippi.....	8,104	3,216	1,032	4,560	5,110	2,296	23,286	7,220	3,791	3,107	1,396	18,890
Illinois.....	10,554	4,227	1,313	6,224	5,755	2,641	29,401	9,558	4,018	4,166	1,803	24,987
Louisiana.....	11,817	4,710	2,105	8,747	11,236	4,822	11,062	5,484	6,708	5,695	3,102	32,051
Missouri.....	10,677	4,256	1,301	6,537	6,622	2,909	31,001	9,766	3,978	4,265	1,902	24,967
Alabama.....	17,103	6,281	1,750	9,336	9,055	4,064	51,750	15,810	7,993	6,825	2,895	44,495
Michigan.....	1,220	559	152	1,334	1,661	609	1,130	525	692	595	266	3,208
Arkansas.....	2,420	985	329	1,427	1,453	686	2,142	927	1,179	934	426	5,608
TOTAL.....	1,345,220	612,535	182,205	776,030	766,283	495,065	1,280,570	605,375	781,371	736,600	462,888	3,871,647

* See note to table IV.

TABLE II.—SHOWING THE FREE COLORED POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES ON THE 1ST OF AUGUST, 1820.

STATES AND TERRITORIES	MALES.					FEMALES.				
	Under 14	14 and under 26	26 and under 45	45 and upwards.	TOTAL.	Under 14	14 and under 26	26 and under 45	45 and upwards.	TOTAL.
Maine.....	170	86	91	90	437	168	115	126	83	492
New Hampshire.....	97	101	85	89	372	109	99	106	100	414
Vermont.....	132	113	93	80	438	170	125	97	73	465
Massachusetts.....	1,085	680	836	647	3,308	969	778	904	781	3,432
Rhode Island.....	577	388	343	279	1,587	550	523	465	429	1,967
Connecticut.....	1,432	911	865	629	3,837	1,421	961	950	675	4,007
New York.....	5,197	3,011	3,347	1,903	13,458	5,342	4,195	4,126	2,158	15,821
New Jersey.....	3,328	1,116	1,090	882	6,416	3,093	1,198	987	766	6,044
Pennsylvania.....	5,666	3,348	3,890	1,900	14,804	5,465	4,063	4,073	1,797	15,398
Delaware.....	2,812	1,317	1,207	1,143	6,479	2,742	1,379	1,307	1,051	6,479
Maryland.....	7,829	3,593	3,756	3,568	18,746	7,857	4,461	4,752	3,914	20,984
District of Columbia.....	756	338	349	288	1,731	828	549	548	392	2,317
Virginia.....	8,145	3,884	3,135	2,685	17,849	7,640	4,545	3,772	3,083	19,040
North Carolina.....	3,415	1,728	1,109	1,143	7,395	3,129	1,737	1,345	1,006	7,217
South Carolina.....	1,376	732	647	541	3,296	1,223	836	800	671	3,530
Georgia.....	320	195	180	146	851	349	209	195	159	912
Kentucky.....	585	281	284	343	1,493	488	254	244	280	1,266
Tennessee.....	700	323	240	238	1,501	532	297	224	173	1,226
Ohio.....	1,057	544	538	315	2,454	994	549	466	260	2,269
Indiana.....	275	146	141	92	654	251	137	120	68	576
Mississippi.....	87	62	52	38	239	84	52	44	39	219
Illinois.....	86	71	55	25	237	104	50	44	22	220
Louisiana.....	2,248	876	915	470	4,509	2,209	1,557	1,377	824	5,967
Missouri.....	93	40	36	17	186	62	39	34	26	161
Alabama.....	118	83	68	49	357	91	69	58	35	276
Michigan.....	35	32	27	11	105	20	20	16	13	69
Arkansas.....	18	13	11	2	44	8	3	1	3	15
TOTAL.....	47,659	24,012	23,450	17,613	112,783	45,898	28,850	27,181	18,861	120,783

* See note to table IV.

TABLE III.—SHOWING THE SLAVE POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES ON THE 1st OF AUGUST, 1820.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	MALES.				FEMALES.					
	Under 14.	14 and under 26.	26 and under 45.	45 and upwards.	TOTAL.	Under 14.	14 and under 26.	26 and under 45.	45 and upwards.	TOTAL.
Maine.....
New Hampshire.....
Vermont.....
Massachusetts.....
Rhode Island.....	2	1	1	14	18	2	3	3	22	30
Connecticut.....	13	24	37	13	47	60
New York.....	1,861	1,624	932	671	5,088	1,544	1,579	1,065	812	5,000
New Jersey.....	860	1,583	917	628	3,988	592	1,285	1,036	656	3,569
Pennsylvania.....	1	1	18	65	85	3	2	36	85	126
Delaware.....	1,244	839	337	135	2,555	979	611	233	131	1,954
Maryland.....	24,736	14,846	10,718	6,073	56,373	22,740	13,403	9,362	5,520	51,025
District of Columbia.....	1,245	775	671	316	3,007	1,311	990	696	373	3,370
Virginia.....	96,881	52,791	45,438	23,164	218,274	92,468	51,972	40,691	21,748	206,879
North Carolina.....	48,914	27,511	19,395	10,731	106,551	45,055	25,663	18,326	9,422	98,466
South Carolina.....	51,738	32,324	31,641	14,769	130,472	49,694	33,991	30,461	13,857	128,003
Georgia.....	33,204	19,541	16,249	6,922	75,916	32,141	19,879	15,631	6,089	73,740
Kentucky.....	31,469	17,132	10,944	4,369	63,914	29,231	17,407	11,801	4,379	62,818
Tennessee.....	20,314	10,078	6,529	2,826	39,747	19,251	11,153	7,192	2,764	40,360
Ohio.....
Indiana.....	43	37	11	7	98	40	21	21	10	92
Mississippi.....	7,016	4,600	4,061	1,173	16,850	6,677	4,807	3,506	974	15,964
Illinois.....	170	173	133	66	548	139	128	71	31	369
Louisiana.....	11,675	10,876	10,520	3,495	36,566	10,763	11,672	7,758	2,305	32,498
Missouri.....	2,491	1,511	852	487	5,341	2,281	1,461	855	284	4,881
Alabama.....	9,665	6,563	4,200	1,352	24,717	9,140	6,141	3,779	1,039	22,722
Michigan.....
Arkansas.....	323	276	143	78	820	293	268	157	79	797
TOTAL.....	343,852	203,088	163,723	77,365	790,965	324,344	202,336	152,693	70,637	752,723

* See note to table IV.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	WHITES.			FREE COLORED.			SLAVES.		
	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Maine.....	149,195	148,145	297,340	437	492	*995	298,335
New Hampshire...	119,210	124,026	242,236	372	414	*925	244,161
Vermont.....	117,310	117,536	234,846	438	465	*918	235,764
Massachusetts.....	252,154	264,265	516,419	3,308	3,432	*6,868	523,287
Rhode Island.....	38,492	40,921	79,413	1,587	1,967	*3,598	83,059
Connecticut.....	130,707	136,454	267,161	3,837	4,007	*7,944	275,202
New York.....	679,551	653,193	1,332,744	13,458	15,821	*29,980	5,088	5,000	10,088
New Jersey.....	129,619	127,790	257,409	6,416	6,044	*12,609	3,988	3,569	7,557
Pennsylvania.....	516,618	500,476	1,017,094	14,804	15,398	*32,153	85	126	211
Delaware.....	27,905	27,377	55,282	6,479	6,479	12,958	2,555	1,954	4,509
Maryland.....	131,743	128,479	260,222	18,746	20,984	*39,730	56,373	51,025	107,398
Dist of Columbia...	11,171	11,443	22,614	1,731	2,317	*4,048	3,007	3,370	6,377
Virginia.....	304,731	298,343	603,074	17,849	19,040	*37,139	218,274	206,879	425,153
North Carolina.....	209,644	209,556	419,200	7,395	7,217	14,612	106,561	98,466	205,017
South Carolina.....	120,934	116,506	237,440	3,296	3,530	6,826	130,472	128,003	258,475
Georgia.....	98,404	91,162	189,566	851	912	*1,767	75,916	73,740	149,656
Kentucky.....	223,696	210,948	434,644	1,493	1,266	*2,941	63,914	62,818	126,732
Tennessee.....	173,600	166,327	339,927	1,501	1,226	*2,779	39,747	40,360	80,107
Ohio.....	300,607	275,965	576,572	2,454	2,269	*4,862	581,434
Indiana.....	76,649	69,109	145,758	654	576	1,230	147,178
Mississippi.....	23,286	18,890	42,176	239	219	*458	16,850	15,964	32,814
Illinois.....	29,401	24,357	53,758	237	220	*506	548	369	917
Louisiana.....	41,332	39,051	73,383	4,509	5,967	*10,960	36,566	32,498	69,064
Missouri.....	31,001	24,987	55,988	186	161	*376	5,341	4,881	10,222
Alabama.....	51,750	44,495	96,245	357	276	633	24,717	22,722	47,439
Michigan.....	5,383	3,208	8,591	105	69	*305	8,896
Arkansas.....	*6,971	5,608	12,579	44	15	*77	14,273
TOTAL.....	4,001,064	3,871,647	7,872,711	112,783	120,783	238,197	790,965	752,723	1,543,688
									9,654,596

* The numbers thus marked comprehend people of color who were designated in the census, in some of the returns, as "other free persons, except Indians, not taxed," without discrimination of sex. The whole number thus returned was 4,631.

† The population of this state was stated in the census published by the state department, in 1832, to be 127,901; but in the "statistical view," published by the same department three years afterwards, pursuant to resolutions of the Senate in 1833 and 1834, at was set down at 144,317—showing a difference of 16,416. The last of these official statements being believed to be correct, it has been here followed as to the aggregates of the whole population of the states, and of its three several classes; but as it omits the details, the distribution according to age, in the statement of 1832, remains uncorrected. There will therefore be found, between the aggregates and the details of the population of this state, a discrepancy of 16,416.

The decennial increase, shown by this census, compared with that of 1810, was as follows, viz :

	1820.	1810.
Of the whole population, . . .	33.35 per cent.	36.45 per cent.
Of the white, . . .	34.3 "	36.18 "
Of the free colored, . . .	27.75 "	72. "
Of the slave, . . .	29.57 "	33.40 "
Of the whole colored, . . .	29.33 "	37.58 "

It thus appears that the increase of the whole population was 3.10 per cent more in the last ten years than in the ten preceding. But if we make a deduction from the increase shown by the census of 1810, for the extra gain by the purchase of Louisiana, and which may be estimated at $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, the difference will be reduced to 1.6 per cent—equivalent to 115,837 persons. This falling off is to be attributed partly to the suspension of immigration during the war, partly to the slaves who fled to the enemy during the same period, and lastly to that gradual diminution of natural increase of which the several enumerations furnish evidence, and which probably the war slightly increased.

While there was so sensible a difference in the increase of the population shown by the two last enumerations, its distribution among the several classes continued in nearly the same proportions, viz :

	Census of 1820.	Census of 1810.
The whites amount to . . .	81.55 per cent.	80.97
The free colored . . .	2.46 "	2.57
The slaves . . .	15.99 "	16.46
<hr/>		
The whole free population, . . .	84.01 "	83.54
The whole colored, . . .	18.45 "	19.03

It thus appeared that the white population had gained on both descriptions of the colored.

The proportion between the sexes in the three classes was as follows, viz :

In the white population the males exceed the females, as 100 to 96.77.
 Free colored do. the females exceed the males, as 107.09 to 100.
 Slave do. the males exceed the females, as 100 to 95.16.

This excess of females in the free colored class, is to be ascribed principally to the seafaring and roaming habits of many of the males, and probably in a small degree to the greater number of females who are emancipated. The disproportion is therefore greatest between the ages of 14 and 45.

In five of the New England states, from the like prevalence of seafaring and migratory habits, the females exceed the males. In Maine, however, there is a small majority of males—the gain from immigration in that thinly settled state more than counterbalancing the loss by the pursuits of fishing and navigation. In the other states of the union the males, both of the white and colored population, exceed the females ; and of the whites under ten years of age, the males are most numerous even in the New England states.

The excess of males exhibited by the census has doubtless been somewhat enhanced by foreign emigrants, of whom a majority are males, but it is to be referred principally to that curious and admirable provision of nature, by which the greater number of males born is sufficient, under ordinary circumstances, to compensate the peculiar casualties to which that sex is exposed. Even in the free colored population, of which the females have a preponderance of 7 per cent, *the males under 14* exceed the females about 3 per cent.

The numbers of the three classes, male and female, within the several ages mentioned in the census, are respectively in the following proportions to the whole of each class, viz :

1st. *Of the whites—*

The males under 10 are 17.1 per cent.				The females, 16.3 per cent.			
10 and under 16	7.8	"	.	"	.	7.7	"
16 and under 26	9.9	"	.	"	.	9.9	"
26 and under 45	9.7	"	.	"	.	9.4	"
45 and upwards	6.3	"	.	"	.	5.9	"
	<hr/>				<hr/>		
	50.8				49.2		

2d. *Of the free colored—*

The males under 14 are 20.4 per cent.				The females, 19.7 per cent.			
14 and under 26	10.3	"	.	"	.	12.4	"
26 and under 45	10.	"	.	"	.	11.6	"
45 and upwards,	7.5	"	.	"	.	8.1	"
	<hr/>				<hr/>		
	48.2				51.8		

3d. *Of the slaves—*

The males under 14 are 22.4 per cent.				The females, 21.1 per cent.			
14 and under 26	13.2	"	.	"	.	13.2	"
26 and under 45	10.6	"	.	"	.	9.9	"
45 and upwards,	5.	"	.	"	.	4.6	"
	<hr/>				<hr/>		
	51.2				48.8		

It thus appears that one third of the white population was under ten years of age, and not quite half (48.9 per cent) under sixteen. This age does not so equally divide this part of the population as it did in the previous enumerations, since the same causes which occasioned the small decline in the rate of natural increase before adverted to, lessened the proportion of those who were under that age, and consequently placed the point of equal division at somewhat greater age.

Of the free colored population less than two thirds, (62.8 per cent,) and of the slaves more than two thirds, (69.9,) are under twenty-six years of age.

The relative numbers of the white and colored population in the slave-holding states, is exhibited in the following table.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Whole population.	Whites.	Free col'd persons.	Slaves.	PER CENTAGE OF		
					Wh'ts.	F. col'd persons.	Slaves.
Delaware.....	72,749	55,282	12,958	4,509	76.	17.8	6.2
Maryland.....	407,350	260,222	39,730	107,398	63.9	9.7	26.4
Dist. of Columb.	33,039	22,614	4,048	6,377	68.5	12.2	19.3
Virginia.....	1,065,366	603,074	37,139	425,153	56.6	3.5	39.9
North Carolina..	638,829	419,200	14,612	205,017	65.6	2.3	32.1
South Carolina..	502,741	237,440	6,826	258,475	47.2	1.4	51.4
Georgia.....	340,989	189,566	1,767	149,656	55.6	.5	43.9
Kentucky.....	564,317	431,644	2,941	126,732	77.	.5	22.5
Tennessee.....	422,813	339,927	2,779	80,107	80.4	.7	18.9
Mississippi.....	75,448	42,176	458	32,814	55.9	.6	43.5
Louisiana.....	153,407	73,383	10,960	69,064	47.8	7.1	45.
Missouri.....	66,586	55,988	376	10,222	84.1	.6	15.3
Alabama.....	144,317	96,245	633	47,439	66.7	.4	32.9
Arkansas.....	14,273	12,579	77	1,617	88.1	.5	11.3
TOTAL.....	4,502,224	2,842,340	135,304	1,524,580	63.13	3.01	33.86

It thus appears that in these states, since the preceding census, the white population lost, and the colored portion gained nearly the half of one per cent.

CHAPTER V.

THE CENSUS OF 1830, BEING THE FIFTH DECENNIAL ENUMERATION UNDER THE CONSTITUTION.

In the act of Congress which directed the fifth census, some important deviations from the preceding acts were introduced. Thus it numbered the population as it was on the 1st day of *June*, instead of the 1st of *August*, as had been previously done, so that the increase shown, on a comparison with the preceding census, was not as heretofore, for ten years, but for nine years and ten months. There were also a greater number of divisions according to age, both in the white and colored population.* The whites of each sex were arranged under thirteen heads, viz :

Those under 5 years of age.

5 and under 10

10 " 15

15 " 20

20 " 30

30 " 40

40 " 50

50 " 60

60 " 70

70 " 80

80 " 90

90 " 100

100 and upwards.

The colored population of both descriptions, and of each sex, were arranged under the six following heads, viz :

Those under 10 ; 10 and under 24 ; 24 and under 36 ; 36 and under 55 ; 55 and under 100 ; 100 and upwards.

The result is exhibited in the five following tables.

* There were also columns for the deaf, and dumb, and blind, of different ages, which will be hereafter noticed.

TABLE I.—SHOWING THE NUMBER OF WHITE MALES IN THE UNITED STATES ON THE 1ST OF JUNE, 1830.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Under 5.	5 to 10.	10 to 15.	15 to 20.	20 to 30.	30 to 40.	40 to 50.	50 to 60.	60 to 70.	70 to 80.	80 to 90.	90 to 100.	100 & upwards.	TOTAL.
Maine,.....	34,053	28,742	25,522	22,400	34,985	21,700	14,547	9,228	5,956	2,637	823	93	2	200,689
New Hampshire,...	19,428	17,521	16,737	14,847	21,191	14,696	10,772	7,218	5,059	2,786	840	85	4	131,184
Vermont,.....	21,700	19,406	17,597	15,782	24,207	15,773	10,405	7,051	5,203	2,203	618	48	3	139,996
Massachusetts,.....	40,644	35,988	34,679	32,891	58,621	35,433	23,083	15,008	10,319	5,575	1,760	173	1	294,655
Rhode Island,.....	6,733	5,786	5,400	5,354	8,425	5,379	3,512	2,157	1,444	854	261	28	45,383
Connecticut,.....	19,033	17,891	17,788	16,509	26,166	16,608	11,595	7,851	5,495	3,154	871	81	5	143,047
New York,.....	158,077	137,071	118,523	101,712	176,754	113,136	68,871	40,503	23,909	10,034	2,561	255	35	951,441
New Jersey,.....	25,071	21,204	19,745	17,123	27,001	17,231	11,043	7,053	4,458	2,021	534	44	1	152,529
Pennsylvania,.....	117,853	96,199	82,375	73,113	121,359	75,172	46,600	28,032	16,085	6,979	1,775	228	42	665,812
Delaware,.....	4,744	4,099	3,913	3,184	5,508	3,206	2,036	1,286	609	202	43	9	28,845
Maryland,.....	23,737	19,438	17,886	15,778	29,397	18,215	11,072	6,565	3,462	1,375	355	53	7	147,340
D. of Columbia,...	2,333	1,680	1,486	1,522	2,805	1,817	1,068	593	245	75	25	1	1	13,647
Virginia,.....	65,793	51,805	43,287	36,947	60,911	36,539	23,381	15,261	8,971	3,674	1,108	184	26	347,887
North Carolina, ..	46,749	35,950	30,527	25,452	39,428	23,042	14,998	10,536	5,968	2,489	649	138	28	235,954
South Carolina,...	25,132	20,259	16,497	13,961	22,164	13,969	8,334	5,644	3,042	1,210	298	66	14	130,590
Georgia,.....	37,027	23,709	18,594	15,186	26,844	16,156	9,542	5,674	3,083	1,120	290	63	10	153,288
Alabama,.....	22,764	15,482	12,129	9,509	17,440	11,399	6,029	3,593	1,741	591	147	19	3	100,846
Mississippi,.....	7,918	5,572	4,591	3,623	7,237	4,632	2,419	1,595	632	189	47	11	38,456
Louisiana,.....	7,968	6,402	5,134	4,325	10,458	7,777	4,304	2,203	896	317	78	24	9	49,715
Tennessee,.....	59,576	45,366	36,044	29,247	44,982	25,111	15,108	11,188	5,543	2,107	657	105	32	275,066
Kentucky,.....	54,116	41,073	34,222	29,017	45,913	26,389	15,966	10,843	6,253	2,585	699	119	28	267,123
Ohio,.....	96,411	74,690	62,151	51,138	81,290	49,346	31,112	18,058	10,783	3,632	935	138	29	479,713
Indiana,.....	39,780	28,692	22,872	17,653	28,153	17,904	10,306	6,004	3,160	1,059	240	49	13	175,885
Illinois,.....	18,834	12,753	10,024	7,770	14,706	8,825	4,627	2,853	1,172	384	90	6	4	82,048
Missouri,.....	13,531	9,617	7,469	5,639	11,147	7,084	3,642	1,939	927	334	60	14	2	61,405
Michigan,.....	3,023	2,326	1,905	1,543	4,389	2,739	1,232	658	264	64	20	4	1	18,168
Arkansas,.....	3,020	2,021	1,626	1,272	2,835	1,820	876	834	209	69	12	1	14,195
Florida,.....	1,932	1,333	1,015	789	2,171	1,536	760	436	194	57	10	2	1	10,236
TOTAL,.....	972,980	782,075	669,734	573,196	956,487	592,535	367,840	229,284	135,082	57,772	15,806	2,041	301	5,355,133

TABLE II.—SHOWING THE NUMBER OF WHITE FEMALES IN THE UNITED STATES, ON THE 1ST OF JUNE, 1830

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Under 5.	5 to 10.	10 to 15.	15 to 20.	20 to 30.	30 to 40.	40 to 50.	50 to 60.	60 to 70.	70 to 80.	80 to 90.	90 to 100.	100 & upwards.	TOTAL.
Maine,.....	32,471	27,676	24,067	22,348	35,536	22,259	14,183	9,330	5,904	2,688	911	138	3	197,574
New Hampshire,....	18,538	16,790	15,525	14,823	24,564	16,690	11,896	8,448	5,888	3,110	1,085	174	6	137,537
Vermont,.....	21,334	18,632	16,575	15,978	26,540	17,937	13,214	9,245	3,760	3,760	1,228	156	3	139,675
Massachusetts,.....	39,533	34,537	33,326	34,439	60,495	38,163	26,684	18,456	12,989	7,173	2,528	347	4	308,674
Rhode Island,.....	6,623	5,642	5,213	5,584	9,203	5,756	4,024	2,826	1,939	1,058	376	44	48,288
Connecticut,.....	18,270	16,943	16,575	15,978	26,540	17,937	13,214	9,245	6,707	3,760	1,228	156	3	146,556
New York,.....	151,868	133,084	115,166	105,196	168,897	104,522	64,315	38,344	22,589	9,645	2,673	304	17	916,620
New Jersey,.....	23,937	20,479	18,267	16,784	25,817	16,623	11,007	7,307	4,705	2,160	586	63	2	147,737
Pennsylvania,.....	111,947	92,719	80,087	75,976	115,898	69,604	44,485	27,882	16,221	7,084	1,929	235	21	644,088
Delaware,.....	4,647	4,011	3,654	3,381	5,484	3,179	2,047	1,397	360	263	56	6	1	28,756
Maryland,.....	22,356	18,693	17,327	18,020	27,248	16,617	10,840	6,983	3,633	1,541	432	64	14	143,768
D. of Columbia,...	2,182	1,646	1,648	1,843	2,856	1,752	980	603	272	98	32	4	13,916
Virginia,.....	62,411	49,964	41,936	40,479	62,044	36,456	23,750	15,447	8,765	3,847	1,098	188	28	346,413
North Carolina, ..	43,775	34,264	28,842	27,398	41,636	24,534	16,428	10,601	5,980	2,496	747	158	30	236,889
South Carolina,....	23,691	19,043	15,632	15,122	21,866	13,438	8,468	5,455	2,929	1,181	351	80	17	127,273
Georgia,.....	30,958	22,590	17,988	16,432	24,036	13,974	8,427	5,089	2,664	987	268	65	20	143,518
Alabama,.....	21,340	14,801	11,092	9,951	14,457	8,559	4,695	2,731	1,319	432	144	29	10	89,560
Mississippi,.....	7,319	5,165	4,169	3,653	5,231	3,090	1,739	983	436	149	34	7	2	31,977
Louisiana,.....	7,800	6,193	5,140	4,709	6,930	4,204	2,310	1,257	660	222	73	17	1	39,516
Tennessee,.....	55,399	42,975	33,556	30,616	42,970	23,545	15,264	9,279	4,541	1,855	542	110	28	260,680
Kentucky,.....	50,835	39,439	32,197	29,623	41,936	23,463	15,476	9,499	5,315	2,195	575	97	14	250,664
Ohio,.....	89,873	71,851	59,306	52,635	75,574	43,894	27,546	15,898	8,293	2,915	736	89	6	448,616
Indiana,.....	37,505	27,313	21,672	18,087	26,702	15,703	9,028	4,808	2,275	780	212	25	4	163,514
Illinois,.....	17,429	12,000	9,246	8,053	12,461	6,850	3,750	2,047	812	273	77	14	1	73,013
Missouri,.....	12,561	9,077	6,794	5,765	8,791	5,121	2,718	1,499	766	227	60	9	2	53,390
Michigan,.....	2,743	2,066	1,686	1,438	2,540	1,399	726	390	140	35	10	5	13,178
Arkansas,.....	2,782	1,897	1,494	1,225	2,012	1,399	528	301	107	31	9	3	11,476
Florida,.....	1,807	1,251	981	923	1,447	848	484	247	101	45	10	5	8,149
TOTAL,.....	921,934	750,741	638,856	596,254	918,411	555,531	356,046	223,504	131,307	58,336	17,434	2,523	238	5,171,115

TABLE III.—SHOWING THE NUMBER OF FREE COLORED PERSONS IN THE UNITED STATES, ON THE 1ST OF JUNE, 1830.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	MALES.						FEMALES.							
	Under 10.	10 to 24.	24 to 36.	36 to 55.	55 to 100.	100 and up'ds.	Total.	Under 10.	10 to 24.	24 to 36.	36 to 55.	55 to 100.	100 and up'ds.	Total.
Maine,.....	163	172	111	108	54	2	610	143	175	117	93	52	580
New Hampshire,.....	67	78	53	44	32	1	275	68	97	54	63	45	2	329
Vermont,.....	121	116	78	60	48	3	426	121	131	73	71	57	2	4,555
Massachusetts,.....	806	887	718	629	314	4	3,350	812	967	815	661	396	39	3,699
Rhode Island,.....	337	501	317	238	152	3	1,548	355	597	443	350	265	3	2,013
Connecticut,.....	1,019	1,121	771	624	313	2	3,850	1,051	1,233	819	667	417	10	4,197
New York,.....	5,643	6,094	4,860	3,492	1,358	19	21,466	5,509	6,843	5,504	3,780	1,714	54	23,404
New Jersey,.....	3,033	3,234	1,458	1,196	573	7	9,501	2,811	2,890	1,428	1,113	554	6	8,802
Pennsylvania,.....	5,095	5,250	4,069	2,796	1,132	35	18,377	5,054	6,142	4,476	2,742	1,105	34	19,553
Delaware,.....	2,627	2,259	1,303	1,180	503	10	7,882	2,524	2,359	1,446	1,102	526	16	7,973
Maryland,.....	8,309	6,099	4,020	4,142	2,287	49	24,906	7,912	7,313	5,389	4,535	2,796	87	28,032
District of Columbia,.....	895	649	464	405	229	3	2,645	863	1,033	682	564	358	7	3,507
Virginia,.....	8,236	6,126	3,546	2,721	1,731	27	22,387	8,002	7,031	4,501	3,379	2,024	24	24,961
North Carolina,.....	3,438	2,955	1,400	1,062	685	21	9,561	3,287	3,118	1,649	1,179	720	29	9,982
South Carolina,.....	1,314	958	622	424	335	19	3,672	1,378	1,175	746	545	399	6	4,249
Georgia,.....	368	353	224	186	118	12	1,261	347	330	231	185	126	6	1,225
Alabama,.....	275	202	187	124	56	844	245	209	131	84	56	3	728
Mississippi,.....	81	82	59	43	22	1	288	72	51	45	49	14	231
Louisiana,.....	2,503	2,296	1,208	828	384	11	7,230	2,640	2,727	1,927	1,402	755	29	9,480
Tennessee,.....	842	583	361	321	216	7	2,330	772	616	359	285	187	6	2,225
Kentucky,.....	764	584	410	484	402	8	2,652	633	505	351	398	369	9	2,265
Ohio,.....	1,562	1,440	808	646	325	8	4,789	1,573	1,551	799	611	241	4	4,779
Indiana,.....	617	544	307	240	138	11	1,857	594	573	279	215	107	4	1,772
Illinois,.....	277	251	136	119	40	1	824	305	225	125	106	50	2	813
Missouri,.....	87	76	43	57	18	3	284	77	62	46	63	34	3	285
Michigan,.....	31	43	48	29	8	159	20	36	26	16	4	102
Arkansas,.....	27	17	23	17	3	1	88	17	13	10	7	6	53
Florida,.....	138	109	46	56	33	1	383	144	136	70	62	48	1	461
TOTAL.....	48,675	43,079	27,650	22,271	11,509	269	153,453	47,329	48,138	32,541	24,327	13,425	386	166,146

TABLE IV.—SHOWING THE NUMBER OF SLAVES IN THE UNITED STATES, ON THE 1ST OF JUNE, 1830.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	MALES.						FEMALES.							
	Under 10.	10 to 24.	24 to 36.	36 to 55.	55 to 100.	100 and up ^{ds} .	Total.	Under 10.	10 to 24.	24 to 36.	36 to 55.	55 to 100.	100 and up ^{ds} .	Total.
Maine,.....														
New Hampshire,.....														
Vermont,.....														
Massachusetts,.....	1	2												
Rhode Island,.....														
Connecticut,.....	1	2												
New York,.....	5	6												
New Jersey,.....	5	12	395	383	261	3	1,059	8	20	424	451	288	4	1,195
Pennsylvania,.....	23	102	25	11	10	1	172	32	106	22	25	42	4	231
Delaware,.....	580	853	245	83	42	3	1,806	508	617	230	80	49	2	1,486
Maryland,.....	17,880	17,759	8,846	6,135	2,772	50	53,442	17,002	16,236	8,331	5,329	2,601	53	49,552
District of Columbia,.....	794	1,024	542	375	114	3	2,852	816	1,270	612	391	176	2	3,267
Virginia,.....	84,000	68,917	43,189	30,683	12,155	133	239,077	83,207	66,921	40,927	27,206	12,275	144	230,680
North Carolina,.....	45,991	38,099	20,212	14,030	5,848	133	124,313	44,847	37,508	20,095	13,088	5,636	114	121,288
South Carolina,.....	51,820	44,600	29,710	21,674	7,567	98	155,469	51,524	45,517	32,689	22,006	8,112	84	159,932
Georgia,.....	38,367	34,253	19,440	12,818	3,847	92	108,817	38,102	33,917	20,527	12,325	3,765	78	108,714
Alabama,.....	21,837	19,553	11,100	5,158	1,495	27	59,170	21,386	19,669	11,088	4,898	1,312	26	58,379
Mississippi,.....	11,037	10,793	6,947	3,455	845	22	33,099	10,860	10,841	6,983	3,173	682	21	32,560
Louisiana,.....	13,627	17,926	15,784	8,443	2,089	42	57,911	13,687	16,613	13,534	6,249	1,552	42	51,677
Tennessee,.....	27,713	23,431	11,260	6,020	1,729	63	70,217	26,568	24,145	12,923	6,519	1,891	41	71,387
Kentucky,.....	31,500	27,449	13,520	7,499	2,280	61	82,309	30,975	27,346	13,854	8,107	2,572	50	82,904
Ohio,.....		1					1		2	3				5
Indiana,.....														3
Illinois,.....	98	118	76	47	6	2	347	144	128	61	52	12	3	400
Missouri,.....	4,872	4,361	2,058	923	208	14	12,439	4,611	4,605	2,199	1,014	219	4	12,652
Michigan,.....	2	7	11	1	1	3	22	22	3	3				
Arkansas,.....	845	814	395	192	47	2,293	803	836	399	193	51	1	2,283
Florida,.....	2,501	2,482	1,830	948	224	7,985	2,560	2,449	1,561	768	177	1	7,516
	353,498	312,567	185,585	118,800	41,545	748	1,012,823	347,662	308,770	185,786	111,887	41,436	676	996,220

TABLE V.—SHOWING THE AGGREGATE NUMBER OF WHITES, FREE COLORED PERSONS, AND SLAVES, OF EACH SEX, IN THE SEVERAL STATES, ON THE 1st OF JUNE, 1880.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	WHITES.			FREE COLORED.			SLAVES.		GRAND TOTAL.
	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	
Maine.....	200,689	197,574	398,263	610	580	1,190	2	399,455
New Hampshire.....	131,184	137,537	268,721	275	329	604	3	269,328
Vermont.....	139,996	139,775	279,771	425	455	881	280,652
Massachusetts.....	294,685	308,674	603,359	3,358	3,690	7,048	610,408
Rhode Island.....	45,383	45,288	90,671	1,548	2,013	3,561	17	97,199
Connecticut.....	143,047	146,556	289,603	3,850	4,197	8,047	25	297,675
New York.....	951,441	916,620	*1,873,663	21,466	23,404	44,870	62	1,918,608
New Jersey.....	152,529	147,737	300,266	9,501	8,802	18,303	75	320,823
Pennsylvania.....	665,812	644,088	1,309,900	18,377	19,553	37,930	231	1,348,233
Delaware.....	28,845	28,756	57,601	7,852	7,973	15,825	1,486	76,748
Maryland.....	147,340	143,768	291,108	24,906	28,032	52,938	49,552	447,040
D. of Columbia.....	13,647	13,916	27,563	2,645	3,507	6,152	3,267	39,834
Virginia.....	347,887	346,413	694,300	22,387	24,961	47,348	230,680	1,211,405
North Carolina.....	235,954	236,889	472,843	9,561	9,982	19,543	121,988	737,987
South Carolina.....	130,590	127,273	257,863	3,672	4,249	7,921	159,932	581,185
Georgia.....	153,288	143,518	296,806	1,261	1,225	2,486	108,714	516,823
Alabama.....	100,846	89,560	190,406	844	728	1,572	59,170	309,527
Mississippi.....	38,456	31,977	70,433	288	231	519	32,099	136,621
Louisiana.....	49,715	39,516	89,231	7,230	9,480	16,710	57,911	109,588
Tennessee.....	275,066	260,680	535,746	2,330	2,225	4,555	70,216	681,904
Kentucky.....	267,123	250,664	517,787	2,632	2,265	4,897	82,309	687,917
Ohio.....	479,713	448,616	928,329	4,789	4,779	9,568	1	937,903
Indiana.....	175,885	163,514	339,399	1,857	1,772	3,629	3	343,031
Illinois.....	82,048	73,013	155,061	824	813	1,637	400	157,445
Missouri.....	61,405	53,390	114,795	284	285	569	12,439	140,455
Michigan.....	18,168	13,178	31,346	159	102	261	22	31,639
Arkansas.....	14,195	11,476	25,671	88	53	141	2,293	30,368
Florida.....	10,236	8,149	18,385	383	461	844	7,985	34,730
Total.....	5,355,133	5,171,115	10,526,248	153,453	166,146	319,599	996,220	12,866,920

* This number comprehends 5,602 omitted in the marshal's return of the details.

† This number comprehends 210 omitted in the marshal's return of the details.

‡ This number comprehends the omissions in New York and Louisiana, and 5,318 persons on board the public ships.

The increase shown by this census, that is for a period of nine years and ten months, is as follows, viz:

The whole population,	33.26 per cent.
Whites,	33.85
Free colored,	34.17
Slaves,	30.15
The whole colored,	30.7

If we add the increase for the two months required to make up the complete term of 10 years, which is very nearly equal to the half of 1 per cent, the last decennial increase will thus compare with the preceding, viz:

	1830.	1820.
The whole population,	33.92 per cent.	33.35 per cent.
Whites,	34.52	34.3
Free colored,	34.85	27.75
Slaves,	30.75	29.57
The whole colored,	31.31	29.33

This comparative view shows that the rate of increase was somewhat greater in the last ten years than in the ten preceding, instead of being less, as would appear by the enumeration actually taken. The gain from a greater and more uninterrupted immigration, from 1820 to 1830, is more than equal to the additional increase here shown.

The increase of the three classes had been so nearly equal, that their relative proportions are nearly the same as in 1820. Thus:

In 1820—	In 1830—
The whites were 81.55 per cent.	81.90
The free colored, 2.46	2.48
The slaves, 15.99	15.62

Showing a small gain of the white population on the colored, and of the free colored on the slaves.

The males and females, in the three classes, were in the following proportions, viz:

In the white population the males exceed the females, as 100 to 96.56.
Free colored do. the females exceed the males, as 107.64 to 100.
Slave do. the males exceed the females, as 100 to 98.37.

The proportion between the sexes continued nearly the same as under the preceding census, with both descriptions of the free population; but with the slaves, the proportion of females was greater than under the preceding census by more than 3 per cent. This relative change in their numbers might have been caused by a greater mortality among the males; by an extraordinary number of runaways to foreign countries, who are chiefly males; or lastly, by a greater proportion of males of those who had been emancipated. As there seems to be no reason to suppose that more males than females were emancipated, the two first causes must be relied on to explain the difference in question; and neither of them is inconsistent with well-known facts. The instances of escape to Canada have greatly increased within the last twenty years; and of the slaves who are transported to the south, there is a greater proportion of males, and their lives are probably abridged by change of climate and habits.

The proportions of the males and females, at different ages, to the whole number of each sex in the several classes,* are as follows, viz :

1st. *Of the whites—*

<i>Males.</i>		<i>Females.</i>	
Those under	5 years of age, 18.17 per cent.	.	17.83 per cent.
5 and under 10	14.60	.	14.52
10 and under 15	12.51	.	12.35
15 and under 20	10.70	.	11.53
20 and under 30	17.96	.	17.76
30 and under 40	11.09	.	10.74
40 and under 50	6.86	.	6.89
50 and under 60	4.28	.	4.32
60 and under 70	2.52	.	2.54
70 and under 80	1.08	.	1.13
80 and under 90	.29	.	.34
90 and under 100	.04	.	.05
<hr/>		<hr/>	
100.		100.	

2d. *Of the free colored persons—*

Those under 10	.	.	31.72	.	.	28.49
10 and under 24	.	.	28.07	.	.	28.97
24 and under 36	.	.	18.02	.	.	19.59
36 and under 55	.	.	14.51	.	.	14.64
55 and under 100	.	.	7.50	.	.	8.08
100 and upwards	.	.	.18	.	.	.23
			<hr/>			<hr/>
			100.			100.

3d. *Of the slaves—*

Those under 10	.	.	34.90	.	.	34.90
10 and under 24	.	.	30.86	.	.	30.99
24 and under 36	.	.	18.32	.	.	18.65
36 and under 55	.	.	11.74	.	.	11.23
55 and under 100	.	.	4.10	.	.	4.16
100 and upwards	.	.	.07	.	.	.07
			<hr/>			<hr/>
			100.			100.

The preceding tables show that, of the whole population, the number under ten years of age is exactly one third; but the slaves of the same age exceed that proportion, and both descriptions of the free population fall short of it.

If we compare the number of white children under 10, with the number of females between 16 and 45, whether of the same or the preceding census, we find the ratio continually diminishing. Thus :

* It will be perceived that this comparative view differs from that given under the census of 1820. Here the number of males and females, at the different periods of life, are compared with the whole number of the *same sex*, in the respective classes; but there the same were compared with the whole number of *both sexes*. In that, the percentage of both sexes is found by adding the separate per centage of each; here the same result is obtained by taking the medium per centage of both.

1st. When compared with the females of the same census—

The children were to the females, in 1800, as 183.1 to 100.

“ “ “ 1810, as 162.3 to 100.

“ “ “ 1820, as 173. to 100.

2d. When compared with the females of the succeeding census—

The children were to the females, in 1810, as 248. to 100.

“ “ “ 1820, as 237.4 to 100.

“ “ “ 1830, as 225.8 to 100.

For which diminution of ratio no satisfactory explanation can be given but a gradual decline in the rate of natural increase. It is to be regretted that the enumerations do not show the number of married women, whereby our inferences, as to this important question, might have been more precise and conclusive.

The relative numbers of the three classes, in the slaveholding states, were thus distributed in 1830, viz :

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Whole population.	Whites.	Free col'd	Slaves.	PER CENTAGE OF		
					Wh'ts.	F. col'd.	Slaves.
Delaware.....	76,748	57,601	15,855	3,292	75.1	20.6	4.3
Maryland.....	447,040	291,108	52,938	102,994	65.1	11.8	23.1
Dist. of Columb.	39,834	27,563	6,152	6,119	69.2	15.4	15.3
Virginia.....	1,211,405	694,300	47,348	469,757	57.4	3.8	38.8
North Carolina..	737,987	472,843	19,543	245,601	64.1	1.6	33.3
South Carolina..	581,185	257,863	7,921	315,401	44.4	1.3	54.3
Georgia.....	516,823	296,806	2,486	217,531	57.4	1.5	42.1
Alabama.....	309,527	190,406	1,572	117,549	61.5	.5	38.
Mississippi.....	136,621	70,443	519	65,659	51.5	.4	48.1
Louisiana.....	215,739	89,441	16,710	109,588	41.5	7.7	50.8
Tennessee.....	681,904	535,746	4,555	141,603	78.5	.7	20.8
Arkansas.....	30,388	25,671	141	4,576	84.5	.5	15.
Kentucky.....	687,917	517,787	4,917	165,213	75.3	1.3	23.5
*Missouri.....	140,455	114,795	569	25,091	81.7	.4	17.9
Florida.....	34,730	18,385	844	15,501	53.1	2.3	44.6
TOTAL.....	5,848,303	3,660,758	182,070	2,005,475	62.60	3.11	34.29

By the preceding table both classes of the colored population had gained a little on the whites in these states.

The numbers gained by the acquisition of Florida are included in the 5th enumeration, and the several estimates relative to it; but as its population at the time of its purchase (in 1821) probably did not exceed 10,000 persons, or the tenth of one per cent on the whole population. its disturbing influence has been disregarded in the preceding views.

ART. III.—THE NAVY AND ITS USE.

REDUCTION OF THE NAVY—ITS INFLUENCE ON OUR COMMERCE—USE OF THE NAVY—PROGRESS OF THE NAVY—PROBABILITY OF A GENERAL WAR—THE RIGHT OF SEARCH—INFLUENCE OF THE NAVY ABROAD—THE NAVY SHOULD BE INCREASED, ETC.

THE contemplated reduction of the navy is the measure of which of all others the present Congress can claim the most undisputed parentage. Coming even from a body as eccentric as that with which it originated, we confess it struck us with grave astonishment. In a time of superficial peace, when our relations with the great maritime powers of the old world have become so entangled as to make quite probable the intervention of that summary diplomacy which the strong is always ready to wreak upon the weak; when we are just plunging into the embarrassments which will arise from the winding up of an old tariff and the adjustment of another, which, from the necessities of the general government, must be more spread, and, from the pressure of local interests, may be more unequal than that which preceded it; at a time when the propriety which is thus created of a respectable central force, is increased by the urgent requisition on the general government for interposition by the constituted authorities of at least one state;—at such a time, we repeat, we did not anticipate that a proposition to reduce and to incapacitate the navy, would be seriously debated in our national legislature. Such however has been the case. Without the least pulse of instigation from the body of the people, without the preparatory internal motions by which great measures are preceded, without the reception of evidence or the hearing of counsel, either before the House or by committee, votes were taken and resolutions passed, which would eventuate, if carried into effect, in the prostration of our maritime service. It is not our duty to speculate upon the results of the various reforms which were thus passed upon, or to criticise the modifications of which they were susceptible. We make use of the opportunity which the movement itself affords, to claim a hearing on behalf of those whose property and whose character have been put at stake. As the organ of the commercial community, we have a right to come into court and show reason why the navy should not go down. We are parties interested in the cause, and we are privileged to be heard, not only because our right as citizens gives us a right as judges, but because it is upon us that the blow will finally fall; because when the rampart which protects our wealth and our immunities is removed, the city which is behind it will be pillaged.

We do not argue the question of the expediency of great commercial dealings. No legislation can stop them; and though they may be greatly disarranged, and cruelly distorted by domestic interference or by foreign aggression, though our integral wealth may be dissipated, and our national honor laid low by governmental interposition, as long as we have more than we want of some of the great staples of consumption, and have less than we want of others; as long as fields plaided with tobacco, and swamps bristled with rice, and brakes plumed with the cotton plant, are swathed over the body of the southern states; as long as the north can produce coarse grains, and rough cloths, and common cutlery, sufficient to supply the southern market, so long will the wheel of trade be kept in motion, and the north and south together will exchange their natural productions

for others which in England or in India can be raised more cheaply. The merchant may be reduced to a savage, but he still will barter the rude superfluities which then remain to him, for the necessities of which the next savage is possessed. As a nation, we form part of the great harmonious system of the universe, and should we be cut out from the surrounding members, should we be separated from the market place, where our common wants and our common superfluities can be exchanged, we will find, like a man who has on a dozen jackets while otherwise he is wholly naked, that while the necessities which we possess are so redundant as to be oppressive, they can only by an entire contortion of their office be made to supply the articles of which we are in want. Such a state of things could scarcely exist, except in an interregnum of revolution. The man doubly clothed in one quarter, who meets a neighbor doubly clothed in another, will soon adjust an equilibrium of necessities. We will trade with another, we will trade with foreign nations; and the question to be decided, is not whether we shall cease trading altogether, but whether our traders shall be preserved from insult, our property from confiscation, and our honor from disgrace.

Should the exports and imports of the country be measured by the cargo of a single ship, that ship should be protected by an adequate navy. A citizen of the United States has the same claim on the watchfulness of his government, whether he be in the Indian Sea or in the District of Columbia; and that same justice which must avenge his injuries, must prevent their future occurrence. The cabin of each armed cruiser becomes the consular office of the nation by whom it is despatched; and wherever the flag is suspended, a signal is held out, that from it protection may be sought and redress afforded. Wo to the dignity of a country whose citizens must rely, the moment the portcullis of their own forts is closed on them, upon the forbearance of rival nations for support. There was once a parenthesis of time, which the retrenchment lecturers have studiously dropped from our history, when, without any thing more than the masqueraded miniature of a navy, we were called upon to protect our commerce against the encroachments of the two great antagonist powers of the old world. In the centre of our fight lay our little gun-boats, exposed to the double fire of the huge three-deckers, which the mammoth energies of France and England had thrown upon the sea. An American merchant vessel was the legitimate prize on which the cruisers of both countries wreaked their prowess; and often, when a more noble robber was out of view, when the lion and the eagle of the forest were tearing each other in the distant landscape, privateers of the lowest grade of creation, who had prowled like jackals over the quarry, till the coast was clear, pounced down upon the victim, and carried it off in muffled swiftness to the cave where their treasures were secreted. There was none so mean as to do us honor. Our commerce was degenerating into a contraband carrying trade, and had not gun-boats sunk, had not the pride and honor of the country been roused to a pitch which repelled the encroachments of both aggressors, our merchant service would have been limited to an outlaw trade, and our navy would have been totally extinguished.

Our commercial history, since that era, need not be written. Not in one point alone, but in every section of the sphere, in every sea, where stout timbers, and stout hands, and stout hearts can carry the merchant, bargains have been struck and treaties cemented. The smallest trader,

the ice-retailer in India, or the toy-pedler in New Zealand, has pointed to his ship certificates as a diploma, whose potency no college, however savage, can resist. There has been a conventional sanctity attached to the American name in distant seas, which its gallant navy alone has won. What else there is to recommend us, we know not; our government is distasteful to the monarchies of the east, our financial dealings have not been the most creditable, nor our embassies the most splendid, and yet we have earned in the most desolate coasts a character which has consecrated our commerce and secured our citizens. There are captains in the service who can testify of receptions the most solemn in courts the most wild, and of courtesies which spoke both of the respect and the kindness of the giver, from sovereigns of every grade from the cannibal monarch of the South Sea, to the deified Lady Hester Stanhope. Even in South America itself, the paradise of outlawry, in a country whose people are a creole compound of Spanish pride with Indian treachery, our flag has been unfurled to canonize with its shadow not only our domestic property, but the remnants of their own shattered constitution.

All this, are we told, is to be undone. The sentinels are to be withdrawn from the fortress. Our national ships are to be tossed out into the Gulf-stream, with their masts unclothed and their ports dismantled. A navy which, in the hands of any other power, would be scarcely elastic enough to stretch over the mouth of the Gulf of Mexico, is to be shorn of its growth and drifted loose on the world. It has done great service, but its claims to our gratitude are to be overlooked. Its officers have three-fourths expatriated themselves, and as a reward, the fragment of home which they still clutch is to be torn from their hands. The moderate allowance given to them—an allowance which on shore to men of their energy and their self-sacrifice would be doubled by either of the remaining professions—is to be shrunk till it can but half cover their backs. Away from the national councils, scattered by the terms of their commissions to the four winds, their incomes, their services, their claims have been brought on the carpet, and without mercy criticised and dissected. They have been indicted by the grand inquest of the people, and before the people themselves they do now stand on trial.

We do not come forward to plead their cause. We are sure that with the great mass of the people it will require no labored defence. We feel, however, that we have a duty belonging to ourselves which it would be suicidal in us to neglect. It is *our* interests that are at stake, and through us the interests of the whole community. Disperse the police, and the seas will be the high road of piracy. Call home the navy, and the merchant service will be unsettled and destroyed. Let our guns cease to be heard, and our name will cease to be respected. Men should reflect on the vast general consequences which will result from a momentary withdrawal of our maritime force, and we are sure that the pruning hook will be thrown aside. We bring to mind that it is through a defended commerce that the infinite division of labor in our country is maintained, and that instead of the great mass being huddled together in one huge field, or in one huge workshop, to produce the cardinal indigenous articles of consumption on which life may be barely supported, each laborer is apportioned to his own branch and to his own individual employment, and is enabled, through the multifarious exchange that the reciprocity of trade has established, to devote himself to the vocation which his choice pre-

- scribed, be it even so narrow as the forging of pin-heads alone, and to receive in return for the exuberance of his own staple the luxuries and comforts which the most distant climates afford. We bring to mind that it is by the commutation of individual or of national productions that the blessings of civilization are created, and that it is by means of the possession of a decent competency by each man who is willing to work, that our free institutions are made practicable. We bring to mind, also, that when our commerce is no longer protected our national charity must cease, for it is by means of our commercial intercourse with distant nations alone, that we can hope to impress upon them the stamp of constitutional liberty and of Christian truth.

The necessity of an increase of the navy proportional to the increase of our foreign commerce, has been felt and acted on with remarkable uniformity since the period when the navy was first called into action. We have prepared a table which exhibits the amount of our exports from 1817 to 1840 inclusive, together with the navy expenses for the same period, by which it will be found that drawing off from the aggregates the flush caused by temporary gluts of the money market or by extraordinary and specific appropriations, there has been a sober and proportionable increase in each department.

	<i>Value of Exports</i>	<i>Expenses of the Navy.</i>
1817 . .	87,671,569 . .	3,314,598
1818 . .	93,281,133 . .	2,953,695
1819 . .	70,142,521 . .	3,847,640
1820 . .	69,691,669 . .	4,387,990 (1)
1821 . .	64,974,382 . .	3,319,243
1822 . .	72,160,377 . .	2,224,458
1823 . .	74,699,030 . .	2,503,765
1824 . .	75,986,657 . .	2,904,581
1825 . .	99,535,388 . .	3,049,083
1826 . .	77,595,322 . .	4,218,902 (2)
1827 . .	82,324,827 . .	4,263,877
1828 . .	72,264,686 . .	3,918,786
1829 . .	72,358,671 . .	3,308,745
1830 . .	73,849,508 . .	3,239,428
1831 . .	81,310,583 . .	3,856,183 (3)
1832 . .	87,176,943 . .	3,956,370
1833 . .	90,140,433 . .	3,901,356
1834 . .	104,336,973 . .	3,956,260
1835 . .	121,693,577 . .	3,898,791
1836 . .	128,663,040 . .	5,827,816 (4)
1837 . .	117,419,376 . .	6,852,059 (5)
1838 . .	108,486,616 . .	5,980,971
1839 . .	121,028,416 . .	5,941,389 (6)
1840 . .	131,571,950 . .	6,225,002

To the present year belongs the distinction of having become the era in which the navy of the country should pass its culmination. The principle

-
- (1) Increased to suppress piracies in the West Indies.
 - (2) Increased to suppress piracies. (3) Dry-docks begun.
 - (4) Exploring expedition preparing, and revenue expanding much.
 - (5) One large steamer. (6) Two more large steamers.

has been laid down authoritatively that naval appropriations must hereafter be squared within certain columns, and regulated by certain laws, no matter what may be the emergency of our foreign affairs or the necessities of our commerce. We should think that a principle quite the contrary would be the wisest. What will be the condition of our commerce when the fear is removed which is created on hostile or barbarous nations by the presence of our armed cruisers? If our trade is to extend, the garrison we place round it should extend also, and no surer way could be found of maiming our resources or of destroying our wealth, than by casting them out without protection on the high seas. We have no right, with a commerce every day increasing, with a country admirably adapted to commercial pursuits, to withdraw that watchfulness under the guarantee of which our trade was instituted. Our navy should not only not be reduced, but it should be extended in the proportion which has already existed. We claim that the expansion of our commerce should be met by a corresponding expansion of our maritime force. Had our own individual welfare been solely at stake, we would be justified in demanding as a right that protection which is necessary to our existence. We form part of a great community whose comfort, whose freedom, whose reputation, are intimately reticulated with our own, and when we are prostrated, the fibres of the whole body politic will be shattered. But we do not rest the cause here alone. Do our relations with foreign powers, we ask in the second place, justify the reduction of our naval service? We propose to glance hastily at the position in which we stand to one nation alone in the old world, and dropping all others from consideration, examine how far in connection with that power, we can be called upon to maim the most effective arm of our national defence.

It is not necessary to enter upon the question of a general war. Into the maelstrom of European politics may we never be drawn, but there may soon be felt a vast centripetal influence to which we must either submit ignominiously or resist by force. The old partition walls of nations are crumbling down and fresh landmarks starting up which will mark out in their time new and uncalculated combinations. How long will France, with a huge population whose taste is war, whose habit is war, whose glory is war, which has no commercial entanglements, no manufacturing manacles, which considers all peace on the basis of the two Parisian treaties dishonorable, which hates and despises the English as the Indian hates the white man, which thirsts and hungers for some new revolutionary whirlpool from which its eagles, darting down from their ancient fastnesses, may drag out their prey from the foaming surge,—how long will France remain cribbed and galled, with her circulation impeded, her spirit chafed, and her glory mildewed, when at a plunge she can toss over those fictitious limits into which the Congress of Vienna forced her? The Rhine and the Pyrenees, and then the Baltic and the Adriatic—away to those grand perpetual boundaries which nature has described! Once more let the dictator plant his horse on the summit of the Alps, once more let his sword point to Moscow or the Pyramids, and again those granite sentinels of buried ages will challenge from their ancient watch-seats troops of Frankish warriors, or again the skeletons of the barbarian Czars will be startled by invading armies in their vaulted mausoleum. The German Confederacy is knitting together its strength in preparation for such an outbreak. The Austrian empire is drilling its

armies out of the old-fashioned cumbrous quadrille which the Archduke Charles and the Prince Eugene had established, and is drilling into them the light and rapid manœuvres which prostrated fifty years ago the ancient bulwarks of Europe. And how long, also, we may ask, will Russia, with every limb ponderous with muscle,—with a consciousness that, counting together Cossacks, and Poles, and Swedes, and Laplanders, and Turks, and Slavonians, counting those great hordes both European and Asiatic which her territories support, she possesses an army so immense, that should the cistern that holds it be but once loosed, it would tumble down by its own gravity in hurrying torrents, and swathe the whole southern continent in its coils,—how long will Russia, with the darts almost starting from her crowded hands, with her strength almost sickening from the luxury of its own exuberance, stand with her arms folded in her northern palaces and look down without interference on Turkey, or on Egypt, or on Syria? Such suggestions we do not pretend to weigh. Tremendous as must be the collision arising from the meeting of elements so adverse as those which a general war would collect, it is our duty to stand in a position of such guarded safety lest we ourselves be buried in the shock; and yet, tremendous as in all its influence it certainly will be, its indefiniteness removes too often the sanction which its probability would produce. Turning, therefore, to what is here a more legitimate subject of consideration, and passing over points which though more important would require an attention more extended than we can afford to give, we shall confine ourselves, for the sake of illustration, to a single branch in the difficulties between the United States and Great Britain.

Whatever may be the result of the discussion on the Quadruple Treaty, it opens a series of considerations of grave importance to our national character. We are asked, on the one hand, to enter into a league with the chief maritime powers of the world, for the suppression of the slave trade. Great as has been the efforts set on foot by Christian nations, honest as has been the activity with which their exertions have been followed up, the line of the equator has continued to be the track on which Africans, without limit, have been carried from their homes, and transported into the American continent and the adjacent islands. Laws have been passed and penalties have been prescribed, but the laws have been overridden and the penalties scorned by men who can obtain a great prospective prize at the cost of little more than another violation of a conscience already seared and brutal. The United States, Great Britain, Prussia, Russia, France, and Spain, have successively declared the traffic to be inhuman and piratical; and we believe that each one of them has made good, as far as its jurisdiction extends, the principles on which its statutes are predicated. But the slave trade, tolerated as it was and practised by all Christian nations for so long a period of time, cannot now by a change of sentiment, still only partial, be made piracy by the law of nations; and the consequence is that the armed cruisers of each country have jurisdiction only over slavers sailing under their respective flags, and must be obliged, the moment they discover that the stolen cargo is protected by the credentials of another country, to let it pass from under their fingers. An American man-of-war, for instance, on the coast of Brazil, may capture and confiscate an American slaver, but should British slavers in fleets pass under her very port-holes, she must let them pass in safety, because though both the United States and

Great Britain singly have declared the traffic to be piracy, it has not yet been made so by general convention. The most serious inconveniences have thus arisen. The grave statutory and judicial enunciations of both countries have been evaded by a fraud which is as palpable as it is efficient, and an American slaver chased by an American man-of-war is as ready to hoist British colors, and thus under the sanctity of a foreign flag to escape investigation, as a British slaver is to make use of a similar gloss when under equally pressing circumstances. The ingenuity of the trick is in fact originally to be attributed to our transatlantic contemporaries, and there is on record a score of instances where slavers, as clearly proved to be British as the indefiniteness of the ocean can allow, have dropped anchor impudently and harmlessly within gun-shot of a British cruiser, with the American flag flying from their mast-heads, and British bought slaves throttling under its shadow.

- The United States were the first to take action on a subterfuge at once so glaring and so successful. Mr. Monroe, during the period of Mr. Canning's short but brilliant premiership, proposed an arrangement to the British court by which, through mutual concession, the right of search should be allowed to the armed cruisers of each country so far as to enable them to determine, in cases of great suspicion, whether the flag of the slaver which came under their observation was made good by the papers of the vessel itself. Mr. Canning acceded at once to the proposition, and the American minister then resident at the Court of St. James was instructed to draw up a proviso which should incorporate distinctly the views of his government. The proviso was drawn and sanctioned by the British ministry, but having, on its reception in this country, been altered verbally by the Senate in some immaterial points, the principle of the right of search remaining untouched, its final ratification by the king on its return to England was delayed, and the subject laid aside till the agitation of the late quadruple treaty. In very much the same shape as it was formerly advanced by us, it is now brought forward by Great Britain, it being proposed by Lord Palmerston and Lord Aberdeen, on behalf of their respective ministries, that a slaver sailing under a flag different from that of the cruiser which meets her should only be boarded in cases of grave suspicion; and that then, should the ship-papers bear out the flag, she should be suffered to proceed on her voyage unmolested, after compensation had been made for delay or injury.

It is not our business to fathom the merits of the controversy. Its great importance, whatever may be its issue, has, we think, been depreciated. Let it be supposed, in the first place, that the quadruple treaty be sanctioned by the United States, and that the right of search be conceded to foreign cruisers, and exercised by our own. For a very meritorious object, no doubt, for the suppression of a trade which has discredited the Christian name, and which has dishonored the American nation, we will have entered into a vast maritime league, and will be bound from the terms of the agreement and the dictates of self-interest to contribute to the police of the ocean which should thus be established, a respectable and sufficient quota. If the suppression of the slave trade be of sufficient importance to justify an alliance so extended, it is of sufficient importance to require the raising of a force adequate to carry that alliance into effect. By a statement made at the last meeting of the Colonization Society it was shown that the slave trade in the last five years has been greater

than at any similar period for the last half a century ; and one half of the whole traffic is estimated to be carried on in American bottoms. In what way are the delinquents to be punished, or the traffic suppressed, without a sufficient force on the spot to vindicate the character of the country ? Or in what way is the prostitution of our own flag by foreign cruisers to be checked, without vigorous action from our navy ? Month after month, week after week, foreign slavers escape from their national cruisers by hoisting, when under chase, a piece of bunting striped by American colors ; and while thus the penalties of the great maritime powers of the old world have been ridiculed, we have neglected to interfere and vindicate the purity of our flag. To send forth a squadron adequate for the great object in view, is not only our national duty, but will be our conventional obligation should we take part in the quadruple treaty.

But there is another view at which an entrance into such an alliance should be looked, which is worthy of still greater attention. If we concede to foreign cruisers the right of boarding our merchant ships to see if the papers carry out the flag, we should be very watchful lest the naked right be abused. Impressment, the bone for which Great Britain and the United States wrangled themselves into a protracted war, may be snatched from us under pretences the most philanthropic and the most specious. Let the boarding officers once mount the ship's sides, and would it not be a very simple stretch of office in him to capture such sailors as he should believe British by birth ? Or if impressment be expressly disallowed, may not the right of search draw after it the right of judgment ? If a foreign cruiser is allowed to inquire into the existence of papers corresponding to the flag which is carried by an American merchantman, may she not also decide on their validity, and thus assume the power of determining on the efficiency of our municipal laws, as well as on the confiscation on our national property ? If we concede by treaty the right of search, we will be bound to station an efficient squadron over the latitudes on which the right is to be exercised. There can be imagined no step more deleterious to our national honor or our national prosperity than to enter into a compact forming a maritime police for the suppression of the slave trade, and then, not only to omit to vindicate our flag from the dishonors which its abuse has created, but to expose our commerce to the insults, the vexations, and the injuries, which the licensed scrutiny of foreign powers would invite.

But let it be supposed, on the other hand, that we recede from the position that was taken by Mr. Monroe, and refuse our assent to the proposed convention. By the strictest obligations of justice and honor, we will be bound to redouble our efforts for the extinction of the slave trade. We have since the formation of our government declared in a manner the most solemn and the most emphatic that we considered the traffic horrible and unchristian. We have pledged ourselves by ties the most sacred to assist fervently in its eradication. To the quadruple treaty our objections have been those of form, and not of principle ; we have stated our sincere concurrence with the great Christian powers of the world in their detestation of the trade which the treaty was to suppress ; and we have most repeatedly expressed our regret that concessions should be required in the performance of so great a task, which our sense of our primary duty as a nation prevented us from making. What then must be done the moment the alliance be rejected ? To take the vindication of our laws into our own

hands, to equip a fleet sufficient to confiscate the squadrons of slavers which cross the ocean, and to show to our sister powers that we are neither too callous to detest crime, nor too weak to prevent it.

But should our sense of dignity and justice be not acute enough to urge us to the performance of so cardinal a duty, every American trader who reaches our ports on a homeward voyage will bring us intelligence of the disastrous effects of the *ex-parte* interpretation which so grand an interpolation in the law of nations will receive. To the concurring powers the whole superintendence of the high seas will be given; and who can doubt, who has studied the history of Great Britain during the wars which succeeded the French revolution, who remembers the storming of Copenhagen, the attack on the Chesapeake, the immurement in St. Helena, that she will execute without license that right which in convention we had refused? High constable of the seas, she will knock at the door of every merchantman whom she meets on her track; and when once entrance is gained, in the omnipotency of undisputed strength, in the privacy of the central ocean, to the province of constable, will be added those of judge and executioner. In vain may we rely on the generosity or the weakness of a rival whose heart has never been too powerful for her head, and whose arm is sinewed with the strength of two continents.

The United States, under such circumstances, will have but one course. That same Saxon courage which would prompt the attack will repel the aggressor. But putting aside the consideration of the improbability that a navy small in itself and stunted and degraded by its own government, could cope on a hasty emergency with one both vast and effective, with one which is itself equal to those of all the world together, and which in such aggressions would be stimulated and supported by all Europe,—putting aside the absurdity of forging on the spur of the moment officers, seamen, and ships adequate to stand a single cruise against so powerful an antagonist,—how unwise, how mad it would be, to provoke, by the exhibition of our own weakness, a war the first blow of which would brush our little navy from the ocean!

The last war made us foolhardy. We met then England in the lassitude of questionable victory, and in the depression of exhausted strength. Often had the trumpet been blown before the attack came, often on the distant mountains had the glitter of spears forewarned the coming attack, and by the desolation of universal war, and the precaution of our own embargo, we had but little commerce to loose. But look over the face of the ocean, how vast has been the increase since peace was proclaimed, and how huge the prize which tempts its violation! Not that we should dread the result of another collision, but how wild, in the very face of difficulty, to ground our muskets, to spike our guns, and to declare to the world by an act of solemn legislation, that we have incapacitated ourselves from defence as a preliminary to action. The navy to stand still! The very idea of standing still involves retrogression. When the hope of promotion ceases, the spirit of ambition will be gone; and no surer way could be found to damp the energies and to quell the enthusiasm of the officers in our service, than to tell them that no matter what may be their merits, no matter what may be their gallantry, we have divided them off into four little compartments of rank, and that, except in case of a straggling death or resignation, promotion from one order to another is stopped. Carried from professions on shore where every prize was held out which industry

or energy could suggest, they have been led to embark in a pursuit of the greatest sacrifice, of the greatest deprivation ; and then when we have caught them, when we have reduced them finally under our power, we threaten them with a reduction of their pay ; and we tell them that the possibility of promotion, which formed the star that guided their course, is clouded, that cramped in the narrow spheres into which we have crowded them they must remain for almost a lifetime of service ; and then, when they have grown gray, and when their manhood has passed away in fruitless toil and expectation, the very march of time which makes them old, will probably carry off enough of their senior brethren to enable them, in their own turn, to be laid out in state in a captain's epaulettes.

The navy must grow as our wealth grows, as our commerce grows, as our country grows. From the moment of the revolution it has so grown, and with the exception of the few first years of Mr. Jefferson's administration, its growth has been uniform. Every fresh adventure of our merchant service has been supported and made successful by the presence and the name of our navy. The only war into which, as an organized government, we have been thrown, was maintained by the navy almost unassisted ; and since the war, it is to the navy that we owe almost every thing we possess of reputation or of influence abroad. The immunities and the privileges of our traders in the east can be wholly attributed to the presence and co-operation of our men-of-war. Those who recollect the disgraceful reception which the Dutch ambassadors met with in China, at the beginning of the 17th century, can appreciate the weight with which a respectable demonstration of national strength bears upon the conscience of oriental royalty. Dropped down and deserted at Macao, by one of their own unassuming frigates, the representatives of their mighty highnesses, the States of Holland, were caught by the attending mandarins, were immured in bamboo bird-cages, not large enough to admit of any other posture than that of an irregular ellipse, and were carried through the principal avenues of the empire, with a standard-bearer marching before them displaying a banner on which was painted in green and gold the sentiment, "Tribute-bearers from the little governors of the west to the mighty monarch of the universe." As they approached the precincts of the court, their discomfiture was not lessened. The *ko-tou*, or the obsequance paid to the emperor, involving as it did three distinct prostrations of the body to the dust, together with successive blows on the head and face, was not the most tasteful exercise to magnates whose constitutional roundity was so great as that of the Dutch ambassadors ; and yet to the *ko-tou* were they forced to submit, not only to his celestial majesty in person, but to the apparel he had been wearing, to the chairs on which he sat, and to the spoons from which he fed. Such degradation was not conducive to the success of the embassy ; and after their highnesses had parted with their presents, and had paid the exacted homage to the minutest title, they were caged once more in their bamboo domicils, and were carried back again to Macao, with the benefit of the solitary lesson, that in the half-civilized countries of the east, the most costly gifts and the most courteous salutations will have no effect unless they are accompanied by a respectable demonstration of national importance and of national strength.

We are at a loss to understand why the present moment should be fastened upon as our zenith. Had we reached our full growth among

nations, had the tide of our commerce turned, had the enterprise of our people commenced to ebb, and their wealth to flow backward; had the whole world subsided into a peace so profound that not a speck could be seen on the horizon, we might stint our appropriations, and tell our navy that it had reached its maximum, and that further increase was unnecessary. But how distant is so great a consummation! We are struggling still in the advent of manhood, we are clambering with vehement activity to that just position among nations which is demanded by our country, our resources, our race,—while at every throe, at every effort, we are met and checked by the opposition of foreign and rival powers. The integrity of our own territory is not yet guaranteed. The right of search has been alluded to as one out of the many great points of difference between us and one alone of the leading European nations; but the right of search is still but a single item in an account yet unsettled. Have the spirit of rebellion in the Canadas, and the spirit of sympathy in the United States, effervesced with the acquittal of McLeod? Has Great Britain relinquished her claim to the plains of the Arostook, or have we surrendered their possession? Are we to dose quietly in the central states, or is our legislature to spend its sessions in reducing the buttons on a midshipman's coat, when those vast and fruitful regions which spread from the Missouri and its tributaries to the Pacific, are silently settled by a foreign power? Slowly and sleepily, when the republic has been straining at the gnats of inferior politics, have British ships drawn up to the shores of the Pacific Ocean, and have dropped their burdens in the midst of a territory which is covered on the map with the broad name of the United States. Our pioneers have melted away; our stores have been deserted; our traders have been out-marketed. Indian tribes, which were subject to us, have been seduced from their allegiance. Not a sentinel has sounded the alarm, not a ship scrutinized the movement, and we have sat quietly by while the most powerful maritime nation in the world has spread her wharves and has erected her observatories on our western coast. We are waiting till the statute of limitations shall drop its floodgates over the territory beyond the Missouri, before we assert a title which then we can redeem by nothing but a protracted war.

● We do not say that now there is cause for war; but we do maintain that the emasculation of our navy will expose us at once to dismemberment. Never in our short history did we stand more in need of the sanction of a decent and an increasing maritime force. Our commerce in hazard of attack, our territory in part wheedled from us, and our internal institutions distracted, claim from us the most grave attention. The central government has but one arm which she can stretch out to vindicate her majesty abroad, to preserve her integrity at home, to succor the states when in danger of outward attack or of inward rebellion, and on that arm have we invoked the palsy. ● Is the affiliation of the navy with our republican institutions doubted? Standing armies may peril the sovereignty of the states or the integrity of the general government, but never yet has a suspicion clouded the most ardent patriot, that frigates could be drawn up our tideless rivers, and be marshalled over mountains and valleys, to subvert the liberties or the constitution of the land. The navy is insinuated with the greatest virtues, but is utterly innocent of harm. Is it wise, at a period so critical, at a period when the expiration of an old and the adjust-

ment of a new tariff, call for increased attention to the machinery through which our revenue is filtered, at a period when discontents at home and disgusts abroad will surely be fomented,—is it wise at such a moment to stop our enlistments, and to clog the movements of the police by which our coasts are guarded? We may talk of the encroachments of the national government, but there are subjects on which the national government is by constitution supreme, and on those subjects its dignity should be inviolable. The preservation of our credit as a debt-paying people, the preservation of our reputation as a people loving order, depend upon the preservation entire of the majesty of the federal authorities of the republic within their allotted sphere. The defence of the country is exclusively committed to the national administration, and though we do not foresee disunion or civil war, the cry of one sovereign state in these difficulties of internal convulsion, the call of that state on the President for protection, should admonish us that the danger of schism will increase as the means of preventing it are diminished. Faint as may be the prospect of rebellion at the north, or at the south of a servile war, the complex constitution of our country, the danger of collision which may rise from interests so divergent, from authorities so contradictory, should enter into our consideration when we proceed to shear the government of the single guardian of its dignity abroad, and of the principal guarantee of its domestic integrity.

We feel now that we have done our duty to the navy, which from its isolation has no protector but the self-interest of the people it defends, and to the great mercantile community on whose behalf we speak. We protest with the full force which our position gives us, against the mad legislation which would rob our country of its honor, our commerce of its safety, and our navy of its strength. To the national legislature we hand back the charge, and in the leisure of retirement, in the coolness of separation, we require of its members to reflect on the measure of the blow which they have aimed. You strike, we tell them, ostensibly at the fringe of the service, but in reality you pierce its substance. General legislation in a republic, in most cases, is impotent when it outspeeds public opinion; but here you may wound most deeply where none who come after you can cure. You may equip ships in the spur of the moment, you may sweep a full marine from the decks of merchantmen into your recruiting ships, but who can create and discipline officers of gallantry and seamanship, in the paralysis of a sudden attack? Pay may be cut down and promotion obstructed till your captains become the skippers of the ocean; but never, then, when the time comes for action, never can you restore their ancient bearing. We ask you to draw back, to stop before the wound is widened. Our commerce needs increased supervision, our coast increased protection, our honor increased support. To you, as the constituted guardians of the republic, does her defence belong, and on you do we call, therefore, to protect her wealth, her character, and her territory from the depredations which the ostentation of her imbecility will provoke.

ART. IV.—IRELAND: ITS RESOURCES AND COMMERCE.

GEOGRAPHICAL POSITION—RIVERS—FACE OF THE COUNTRY—GEOLOGY—SOIL AND CLIMATE—CIVIL DIVISIONS—LAKES—POPULATION—EMIGRATION—PROGRESS OF THE TEMPERANCE MOVEMENT—OCCUPATIONS OF THE PEOPLE—AGRICULTURE—MANUFACTURES—INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS—COMMERCE—EXPORTS AND IMPORTS, ETC. ETC.

THE history, literature, and character of the people of Ireland, as well as the fame of her heroes and statesmen, are as familiar as household words to Americans, and the names of Burke, Grattan, Moore, Curran, Emmet, Edgeworth, Wellington, O'Connell, and a host of others, are inseparably associated with "the Emerald Isle." In consequence, however, of the concerns of Ireland being intermingled with those of Great Britain as a part of the British empire, it is believed that but few among us are well informed as to its relative importance in the commercial scale. We have, therefore, compiled from authentic sources the following sketch of the resources, condition, and commerce of Ireland; commencing with a brief description of the country.

Ireland is separated from Great Britain by St. George's Channel, the Irish Sea, and the North Channel, and is washed on every other side by the Atlantic. It is distant only thirteen and a half miles from the nearest point in Scotland, and forty-seven miles from St. David's Head in Wales. The island lies between 51 deg. 25 min. and 55 deg. 23 min. north latitude, and 6 deg. and 11 deg. west longitude from London. Its greatest length is 306 miles, its greatest breadth 207 miles, and the area 31,875 square miles, or 20,399,608 acres. The deep indentation of the western and northern coasts, by bays, gulfs, and estuaries, some of them communicating with inland lakes, causes every part of the island to be within fifty or fifty-five miles of the sea or one of its arms. The extent of coast is about 250 leagues, and there are fourteen harbors for the largest ships, seventeen for frigates, forty for coasting vessels, and twenty-four good summer roads.

Rivers.—The principal rivers of Ireland are the Shannon, Barrow, Nore, Boyne, Liffey, Slaney, Suir, Blackwater, Lee, Bandon, Bann, Foyle, and their branches. Flowing generally through a flat country, they are rarely rapid and but seldom interrupted by cataracts or ledges of rock. They are mostly navigable a considerable distance, and sometimes, as the Shannon and the Barrow, nearly to their sources, and consequently give great facilities to commerce. The Shannon has a south-westerly course of 220 miles, flowing by Limerick, and its importance has been increased by its junction with the canals from Dublin. The Liffey rises in the Wicklow mountains, and has a circuitous course to Dublin bay. The Barrow, Suir, and Nore, have their embouchure in Waterford harbor. Owing to its favorable situation as the natural emporium of a rich and extensive country, Waterford has a great and increasing trade. The Bandon, Lee, and Blackwater rivers run nearly parallel to each other, in the southern part of the island; the Bandon falling into the sea near Kinsale, the Lee at Cork harbor, and the Blackwater at Youghall. Salmon abound in these three rivers. The port of Drogheda is at the mouth of the Boyne. The river Foyle is navigable for ships to Londonderry, and the Bann for boats to Coleraine. The Slaney falls into an arm of the sea near Wexford, and is navigable for barges fourteen miles.

Lakes.—Ireland has a large number of lakes, provincially called *loughs*.

The largest, *Lough Neagh*, is seventeen miles long by nine in width. Loughs *Erne*, *Corrib*, *Mask*, *Conn*, and the picturesque *Lakes of Killarney*, are extensive sheets of water, and with many others are celebrated by tourists. The total area of the Irish lakes amounts, according to Mr. Griffith, to 455,399 acres.

Face of the Country, Geology, Soil, and Climate.—Though some parts of Ireland are hilly and others mountainous, such is not the general character of the country. Several of the counties have a level surface, and others are quite flat. With the exception of the Wicklow mountains, and those of Mourne in Down, the most mountainous parts are on the west coast. The highest mountain is Gurrane Tual, near Killarney, 3,404 feet above the sea. The highest of the Wicklow mountains is 3,039 feet above the sea. There are various other elevations from 1,500 to 3,000 feet in height. Generally they are of easy ascent, admitting of cultivation a considerable way up their sides. From Dublin to the Bay of Galway a vast plain stretches across the kingdom, consisting partly of rich cultivated land; but it contains within it a number of very extensive *Bogs*. These bogs consist of moist vegetable matter, covered more or less with unproductive vegetables and containing much stagnant water. Some are, of course, more or less wet than others. The extent of peat soil in Ireland exceeds 2,830,000 English acres, of which at least 1,576,000 consist of flat red bog, and 1,255,000 acres form the covering of mountains. Many attempts have been made to drain and cultivate these bogs, without much success. They are, however, of considerable importance, (in the scarcity of timber and coal,) as means of furnishing the mass of the people with an inexhaustible supply of *peat* or *turf* as a cheap fuel.

The geology of the island has been but imperfectly explored, and part of its surface, containing nearly 3,000,000 of acres, being covered with turf bogs to the depth of from five to thirty feet, conceal many of its mineral treasures. Sufficient, however, is known to exhibit the leading features of the physical structure and mineral geography of the country. The soil consists for the most part of a fertile loam, resting upon a substratum of limestone. In the lower beds of the great central limestone district, very beautiful black marble occurs, which forms an article of export; brown and statuary marble are also found in Fermanagh, Donegal, and Galway. Granite becomes the surface rock in Donegal, Down, and Wicklow. Mines of lead and copper abound in the Leinster granite; and alluvial gold, in small quantities, has been found in the county of Wicklow. Green serpentine is found in Connaught, and two quarries are now worked. Iron-stone is found in the same province. There are eight principal coal fields in Ireland; bituminous coal is found in the northern part, and anthracite coal in the southern. The collieries of the latter in Kilkenny and Queens counties now annually produce about 120,000 tons. In the county of Antrim is found the most extensive range of *basalt* in Europe.

Most of the coal consumed in Ireland is obtained from England and Wales. The manufactories in the north are principally supplied with English coal at about twelve shillings per ton, delivered at Belfast. The great mass of the Irish population will probably be dependent for many ages on the peat bogs for fuel.

In point of natural fertility, Mr. Young is decidedly of opinion that Ireland is, acre for acre, superior to England, but the proportion of waste land is much larger in Ireland. All that portion of the soil which rests

on a calcareous and rocky subsoil never deteriorates, but when let alone rapidly improves and clothes itself with the finest herbage. The country is said to have been formerly covered with timber, but is now remarkably the reverse; there not being in many extensive districts a natural wood plantation or even a hedge to be seen. The climate is much more temperate than that of England under the same latitude; but the atmosphere derives a perpetual moisture from the Atlantic. The prevailing winds are from the west and southwest, and the influence of the Atlantic Ocean renders the winters mild as to temperature, but stormy and rainy, preventing the continuance of frost, promoting vegetation, giving the face of the country a verdant appearance, increasing fertility, and producing more irregularity in the seasons and weather than in England. All the productions of the soil usually cultivated in England may be raised in Ireland, but the irregularity of the seasons and weather renders the produce more uncertain. Much of the grain of Ireland could not be preserved unless it were kiln dried. The climate, as respects the human constitution, is, upon the whole, highly salubrious.

Civil Divisions.—Ireland is divided into four provinces, which are subdivided into thirty-two counties, and these again into *Baronies, Parishes, and Townlands.*

The division into provinces was for ecclesiastical purposes, previous to the invasion of Ireland by the English in the reign of Henry the Second, in 1172. The following is a comparative table of the provinces:

<i>Provinces.</i>	<i>Counties.</i>	<i>Baronies.</i>	<i>Parishes.</i>	<i>Square miles.</i>	<i>Cultivated acres.</i>	<i>Unimproved, mountain & bog.</i>
Leinster,	12	97	992	7,472	4,144,160	635,424
Munster,	6	59	816	9,187	3,929,852	1,905,368
Ulster,	9	54	332	8,450	3,754,352	1,469,922
Connaught,	5	42	296	6,765	2,805,109	1,330,022
Total,	32	252	2,436	31,874	14,603,473	5,340,736

Recapitulation of area in acres—

Cultivated,	14,603,473
Uncultivated, mountain, and bog,	5,340,736
Lakes,	455,399

Total area, 20,399,608

Islands.—The islands belonging to Ireland are 196 in number, of which 140 are inhabited, containing about 45,000 souls.

Population.—The original inhabitants of Ireland are generally admitted to have belonged to the great Celtic family. The question whether the island was first colonized by emigrants from Britain, Gaul, or Spain, has been much agitated. Mr. McCulloch says, “the fair presumption seems to be that the original population of Ireland was principally derived from Britain, but partially also from Gaul.”

The first permanent change in the population of Ireland was not effected till its invasion by the English under Henry II, in 1172. But the number of English settlers in Ireland was, for a long period, inconsiderable. In the reign of Elizabeth, the Irish, under the Earl of Tyrone, raised a formidable rebellion, which was suppressed by the exertions of Lord Mountjoy, the English deputy, who succeeded for the first time in estab-

lishing the English authority in most parts of the island. In the following reign some of the laws and customs of the Irish were abolished, and the greater part of the lands in Ulster being forfeited to the crown, were assigned to companies of the city of London and others, by whom great numbers of English and Scotch colonists were settled upon them. Dissensions afterwards arose between the Catholics and Protestants, and in 1641 an insurrection broke out, in which many of the English inhabitants were destroyed, and their power nearly annihilated. The English ascendancy in Ireland was again partially restored during the latter part of the reign of Charles I., and their supremacy completely re-established under Cromwell. In consequence of the prevalence of Catholicism in Ireland, the people generally espoused the cause of the Stuarts. But the arms of William III. being successful, the revolutionary government was established there as well as in England in 1690.

The first authentic account of the population of Ireland was given by Sir William Petty, an officer under Cromwell, in 1672. Being employed to superintend the survey and valuation of the forfeited estates, he had the best means of obtaining accurate information of the numbers and condition of the people. The following extracts from his work on the subject are interesting.

"The number of people now in Ireland (1672) is about 1,100,000, viz: 300,000 English, Scotch, and Welch protestants, and 800,000 papists; whereof one fourth are children unfit for labor, and 75,000 of the remainder are, by reason of their quality and estates, above the necessity of corporeal labor; so as there remains 750,000 laboring men and women, 500,000 whereof do perform the present work of the nation.

"The said 1,100,000 do live in about 200,000 families or houses, whereof there are about 16,000 which have more than one chimney in each, and about 24,000 which have but one; all the other houses, being 160,000, are wretched, nasty cabins, without chimney, window, or door-shut; even worse than those of the savage Americans, and wholly unfit for the making merchantable butter, cheese, or the manufactures of woollen, linen, or leather.

"By comparing the extent of the territory with the number of people, it appears that Ireland is much underpeopled; forasmuch as there are above ten acres (Irish) of good land to every head in Ireland; whereas in England and France there are but four, and in Holland scarce one!"—(*Pol. Anatomy of Ireland*, ed. 1719.)

This account of the numbers and former condition of the Irish people, explains the cause why they have been unable to contend successfully with the superior numbers and power of England. Various estimates of the population of Ireland, some of which are obviously on a very imperfect basis, have been made at successive periods, but no official census appears to have been taken until 1813, which census was found deficient in several counties. The following table of the different estimates and censuses will give some idea of the progress of population.

Year.	Population.	Authorities.
1695,	1,034,102.	Estimate by Captain South.
1712,	2,099,094.	} Do. by Mr. Dobbs, on the basis of 6 inhabitants to a house.
1726,	2,309,106.	
1731,	2,010,221.	Inquiry by the Irish House of Lords.

<i>Year.</i>	<i>Population.</i>	<i>Authorities.</i>
1754,	2,372,634.	Returns of the Hearth-money collectors, on the basis of 6 inhabitants to each house.
1767,	2,544,276.	
1777,	2,690,556.	
1785,	2,845,932.	
1788,	4,040,000.	Estimate of Mr. Parker Bushe.
1805,	5,395,456.	Do. of Mr. Newenham.
1813,	5,937,858.	Census, (incomplete.)
1821,	6,801,827.	Complete census.
1831,	7,767,401.	Do. do.
1841,	8,205,382.	Do. do.

These statements show that the population has increased since 1785 with great rapidity. "The wealth of the country has been also, no doubt, (says McCulloch) materially augmented since that epoch, but we doubt whether it has increased in a corresponding proportion. The condition of the great bulk of the people seems to be nearly as depressed at this moment as at any former period." The bounty acts of 1783 and 1784, seem to have given the first considerable stimulus to the population. These acts granted high bounties on the exportation of grain and other produce. Previously Ireland was essentially a grazing country, but no sooner had the bounty acts passed than the pasturage system began to give place to tillage. The pasture lands had been generally let to opulent graziers in immense tracts, requiring only a few individuals to feed and take care of the cattle. The size of the farms was greatly reduced under the tillage system, and the new occupiers were glad to buy whatever labor they could obtain by granting the peasantry allotments of small pieces of ground, whereon they might erect cabins and raise potatoes. The demand thus created for agricultural labor acted as a great stimulus to increase the population, which was also affected by other causes. "The passion for acquiring political influence prevails," says Mr. Wakefield, "throughout the whole country; and to divide and subdivide, for the purpose of making freeholders, is the great object of every owner of land." There are throughout Ireland numerous instances of farms from 300 to 500 acres, let from 40 to 50 years ago to single tenants, now divided among 30 or 40 families, by means of the repeated divisions that have taken place in consequence of the death of fathers, the marriage of children, the introduction of sub-tenants, &c. "The almost universal dependence placed by the population on the potato," says Mr. McCulloch, "has also contributed to increase its numbers. Potatoes may be raised with very little difficulty, in any quantity and on almost any species of soil. A given extent of land planted with potatoes, will support at least double the number of persons that it would do were it planted with wheat or any species of corn, and five or six times the number that it would support were it employed to produce butchers' meat. Hence it is that a country like Ireland, the great bulk of the people of which subsist almost wholly on potatoes, may have an exceedingly dense population, without extensive manufactures, large towns, or any trade save the exportation of raw produce." The increase of population has been most rapid in those parts of the country that are least improved. Thus from 1821 to 1831, the increase in Leinster was only 9 per cent, although that province contains Dublin, Drogheda, Kilkenny, and other large towns, while in Connaught the increase was 22 per cent. A comparatively small part of the population inhabit the prin-

cial cities and towns. In the 26 largest of these places, in 1831, the total population was 724,628, (inhabiting 86,167 houses, or over eight to a house.) This was less than one tenth of the population of Ireland.*

We have not at present the particulars of the census of 1841, but we have before stated the summary as returned at 8,205,382, showing an increase in the last ten years of 437,981, or about $5\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. In the preceding ten years, from 1821 to 1831, the increase was $14\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

The following table shows the population of each province in 1831, with the number of English statute acres, exclusive of lakes, the number of inhabited houses, and the number of acres corresponding to each family.

Provinces.	Population.	No. of acres.	Inhabited houses.	Average number of acres to each family.
Leinster,	1,909,713	4,749,584	292,729	$13\frac{3}{4}$
Munster,	2,227,152	5,835,220	330,444	$15\frac{1}{2}$
Ulster,	2,286,622	5,224,274	402,005	$12\frac{1}{4}$
Connaught,	1,343,914	4,135,121	224,638	$17\frac{1}{4}$
Total,	7,767,401	19,949,209	1,249,816	$14\frac{4}{10}$

Males 3,794,880 ; females 3,972,521 ; males 20 years old and upwards 1,867,765.

Total number of families	.	.	.	1,385,066
Average number of persons to each family	.	.	.	$5\frac{6}{10}$
Do. do. do. to each house	.	.	.	$6\frac{2}{10}$
Do. do. of acres to each person	.	.	.	$2\frac{5.6.7}{10.0.0}$

In England, in 1831, there were $2\frac{6.6}{10.0}$ acres to every individual, including all the large cities and towns, and in Scotland 8 acres to each individual.

History makes no mention of a country more populous in proportion to its extent than Ireland, and certainly there is none now in existence which approaches to its density.*

The subject of emigration is important as connected with population ; but we have no means of ascertaining the immense numbers who annually leave Ireland to settle in foreign countries, besides those who seek employment in the large cities and towns of England and Scotland. The following numbers departed from Irish ports for Quebec and Montreal only, in four years, viz :

1831	34,135
1832	28,204
1833	12,013
1834	19,206

Total, 93,558

Similar tables might be made up, however imperfect, of emigration in various years, to the above and other ports in different quarters of the world. For the 6 years from 1832 to 1837, the average annual emigration from Ireland was 26,586, viz :

* Alison on Population.

To Canada, Nova Scotia, &c.	22,399
United States	3,893
Australia	294

It is understood that the emigration from Ireland to America during the present year, bids fair to exceed all former years. Large numbers of the Irish enlist in the British army and navy. The following were the proportions of English, Scotch, and Irish in the British army in 1830 and 1840 :

	1830.	1840.
English	40,649	47,394
Scotch	11,774	13,388
Irish	40,979	39,193
Total,	93,462	99,975

The success of the temperance cause in Ireland, for several years past, owing principally to the exertions of Father Matthew, a Catholic priest, has had a great effect in meliorating the condition of the people. This is shown by the following comparative amounts of duties paid on spirituous and malt liquors in Ireland for 3 years :

	1838.	1839.	1840.
Excise duty on malt,	£289,969	£242,561	£200,108
Do. on Irish spirits,	1,510,092	1,402,130	1,032,582
Customs duty on spirits,	29,479	26,362	22,368
Do. on wines,	192,618	181,253	162,088
Total,	£2,022,158	£1,852,106	£1,417,146

The malt and Irish spirits duties indicate the consumption of fermented liquors and whiskey by the poorer classes; and the customs duties on foreign wines and spirits, the consumption by the richer classes. The returns from England and Scotland show an *increase* of duties on the former, and a *decrease* on the latter during the above 3 years.

The Dublin Morning Register gives the amount of duties on Irish whiskey paid in 1841, at £964,711, which shows a decrease of £545,381 since 1838; while the duty paid on *tea* had increased from £453,924 in 1840, to £534,563 in 1841. The total revenue collected in Ireland in 1840, was £4,107,866; in 1841, £4,198,689—showing a decided improvement, notwithstanding the decrease of duties on spirits.

The following is a table of the population of the ecclesiastical provinces into which Ireland is divided, which was furnished by the commissioners of inquiry into the state of instruction, in 1834 :

Provinces.	Roman Catholics.	Members of Church of Eng ^l d.	Presbyterians.	Other Protestants.
Armagh,	1,955,123	517,722	638,073	15,823
Dublin,	1,063,681	177,930	2,517	3,162
Cashel,	2,220,340	111,813	966	2,454
Tuam,	1,188,568	44,599	800	369
Total,	6 427,712	852,064	642,356	21.808

Proportions in every 100 persons—

Roman Catholics	85
Members of Church of England	10
Presbyterians and others	5

 100

The tithes collected for the benefit of the Church of England, vary from 1d. to 4s. per acre. The Catholics pay for the support of their own parish priests as follows, in the barony of Kilconnel: the large landholders usually 40s. a year, and the small tenants from 2s. to 5s.—more than one third of the parishioners pay nothing at all. The receipts of the Catholic priests from all sources do not exceed £60 a year.

Occupations of the people.—The following are the numbers of males over 20 years of age in Ireland employed in different pursuits, by the census of 1831.

Agriculture—

Occupiers employing laborers,	95,339	
Do. not employing do.	564,274	
Laborers in agriculture,	567,441	
	<hr/>	
	1,227,054	Proportion in 100. . . 65.7

Trade, manufactures, &c.—

Operatives in manufactures or machinery,	25,746	
Employed in retail trade, or in mechanics, as masters or workmen,	298,838	
	<hr/>	
	324,584	. . . 17.4

Other classes—

Capitalists, bankers, professional and other educated men,	61,514	
Laborers, not agricultural,	89,876	
Other males, except servants,	110,595	
Male servants, over 20,	54,142	
	<hr/>	
	316,127	. . . 16.9

 Total . . . 1,867,765 100.

From the reports presented to Parliament by commissioners appointed since the passing of the reform bill, to inquire into the condition of the people of Ireland, it appears "that agricultural wages vary from 6d. to 1s. a day; that the average of the country in general is about 8½d.; and that the earnings of the laborers on an average of the whole class are from 2s. to 2s. 6d. a week, or thereabouts, for the whole year round." These calculations are made from a table which shows the wages of agricultural laborers in the different counties of Ireland, and the amount of their earnings in the year. This table gives an average employment of about 22 weeks, of six working days each, to the whole of the laborers on hire, who are therefore destitute of employment during 30 weeks in the year. In Great Britain the earnings of an agricultural laborer average from 8s. to 10s. a week. The commissioners say—"A great portion of them (the laborers and their families) are insufficiently provided with the commonest necessities of life. Some go in search of employment to Great

Britain during the harvest, others wander through Ireland with the same view. The wives and children of many are occasionally obliged to beg; they do so reluctantly and with shame, and in general go to a distance from home, that they may not be known. With these facts before us, we cannot hesitate to state that we consider remedial measures requisite to ameliorate the condition of the Irish poor."

In the parts of the country where manufactures are carried on, the condition of the people appears to be much better than in other sections. Wherever the linen trade is in operation the people have constant employment, in consequence of being able to fall back upon their looms when agricultural work is not in demand. They may be said in common years to enjoy a competency; that is, a sufficiency of food, raiment, and fuel.

Agriculture.—The English, when they conquered Ireland, became the principal landholders, and under Cromwell confiscated all the territorial possessions of the Catholics. Lord Clare, Chancellor of Ireland in 1810, declared that since 1640 fifteen sixteenths of the soil of Ireland had been confiscated at different times. From 1640 to 1788 the Catholics were not allowed to possess landed property, and the lands passed to the nearest Protestant relative by right of primogeniture, from male to male. Thus nearly the whole of the lands in Ireland became the prey of the English, but their irritated vassals kept up a warfare with them, and they were unable to reside upon their estates. In order to derive from their lands some revenue, they had therefore no alternative but to let them to *middle men*, who sub-let them in smaller portions, leaving to the under tenants the power to divide and sub-let them still further. It thus appears that the feature which distinguishes Ireland from England and Scotland is, that in the former country the proprietors of the soil, to this day, let it in small portions, whilst in Great Britain the land is only let in large farms.

The bad effect of this system in Ireland is shown by the commissioners in the report before referred to. The complaints against the exactions of the middle men are general, and the lands are let to the peasantry at exorbitant prices, frequently at £2 10s. to £3 per acre a year, and in many instances much higher rates are paid. The leases are generally for short terms, and the land on these small farms is badly cultivated. In part of the provinces of Leinster and Munster the commissioners found the following results of their inquiries as to the size of the farms:—

Under one acre	1,607 farms.
From 1 to 5	4,729 "
" 5 " 10	3,492 "
" 10 " 20	3,017 "
" 20 " 80	2,957 "
" 80 " 100	253 "
" 100 and upwards	369 "

Total, 16,424

The commissioners observe that those farmers who rent only five or six acres are so ignorant that they do not derive from the soil a third of what it is capable of producing, and that more than one third of the whole island is cultivated by spade husbandry. The small tenants are the most numerous, but great portions of the soil are held by large grazing farmers, the general tendency throughout Ireland being to diminish the quantity of tillage in the large farms. If the farmers had the necessary capital for

the proper cultivation of the mountain tracts, this part of the country would be the most valuable. In general the soil of Ireland is of the best quality, but it deteriorates under the bad system of cultivation. The small farmers alone cultivate grain for market. Formerly flax was extensively cultivated, but since the introduction of machinery, the manufacturers have found it more advantageous to import flax from Holland and Russia. For the few past years the crops of flax having failed on the continent, its cultivation has been resumed in the north of Ireland. In Ulster province tillage is generally in an improved state. The grain crops most generally are oats, barley, bere, and some wheat. Potatoes and flax are also cultivated, as well as turnips and other vegetables. In proportion to the spread of capital, the rearing and fattening of cattle increases. In the neighborhood of Dublin the cultivation of artificial grasses begins to spread, but potatoes are the principal crop. In some of the districts the number of sheep raised has increased, and improvements have taken place in the breeds and in the wool. The best dairy farms are in the vicinity of Cork. The agricultural produce of Ireland exported, amounting annually to over £11,000,000,* (or \$52,800,000) as seen by the table of exports which we give below, shows the value and importance of this branch of industry. The annual value of the agricultural produce of Ireland is estimated at £36,000,000, (\$172,800,000) while that of Great Britain is estimated at £150,000,000. Mr. Couling, an engineer, in 1827 gave the following estimate before a committee of the House of Commons, relative to Ireland :

<i>Arable land and Gardens. Acres</i>	<i>Meadows, Pastures, and Marshes. Acres</i>	<i>Waste, capable of improvement. Acres.</i>	<i>Incapable of improvement. Acres.</i>
5,389,040	6,736,240	4,900,000	2,416,664

Manufactures.—The principal manufactures of Ireland for many years have been that of linen. During the reigns of Charles I. and II. much attention was paid to them. The Duke of Ormond and others in those reigns were particularly instrumental in establishing the linen trade. It rose to still greater importance in the reign of William III. from the compact between the English and Irish merchants to discourage the woollen and promote the linen trade. The English woollen manufacturers also procured a statute to be passed, levying additional duty on Irish woollen goods, from a jealous fear that the latter trade was inconsistent with the welfare of that of England. Considerable sums have been from time to time voted by Parliament for the support of the linen manufacture, and during the 18th century it continued to advance until checked by the American war. After the peace it revived, and was at its greatest height from 1792 to 1796. It is now a flourishing department of industry. Belfast is the great centre to which most of the linens are sent for sale, and from thence large quantities are exported to foreign countries. Belfast was the seat of the first cotton manufactory introduced into Ireland, where, in 1794, a mill for spinning cotton twist by water was erected, and so rapidly did it spread, that in 1800, in a circuit of ten miles it gave employment to 27,000 individuals. But from want of protection the trade has declined, and Ireland has been inundated with English manufactures. The cotton manufacture may now be considered as extinct in Ireland, with the exception

* The agricultural exports of the United States in 1846, exclusive of cotton, amounted to \$28,655,032 only.

of a few establishments in Belfast and its vicinity. No returns have been given since the year 1825, when the total number of pounds of raw cotton imported into Ireland was 4,065,930, and of cotton yarn imported thither from Great Britain in the same year, 41,953,156. The *woollen* manufacture is still carried on in Dublin and its vicinity on a small scale, extending principally to the manufacture of coarse fabrics, hearth rugs, and carpeting. The *silk* manufacture was introduced by the French refugees, and about 1693 fully established by them in the liberties of Dublin. In 1774 an act was passed placing it under the direction of the Dublin Society, which opened a silk warehouse. But this act was ruined by an act passed about 1786, prohibiting any of the funds of the Dublin Society from being applied to support any house selling Irish goods. Hundreds of people were by this act thrown out of employment. In 1809 there were, however, still 3,760 hands engaged in it, but when the protecting duties were taken off in 1821, and steam communication opened with England, the Irish market was inundated with goods at a smaller price than that at which the native fabric could be produced, and thus the ruin of the trade was accomplished. The *tabinet* fabric, of silk and worsted, for which Dublin has long been famous, is the only branch of the silk business which has not suffered from these discouragements. At present silk tabareas of great beauty, and rich silk velvets, equal to French, are manufactured in Dublin.

There are a few paper mills in Ireland, which in 1834 manufactured 1,873,625 *lbs.* of first class, and 457,508 *lbs.* of second class paper, paying an excise duty of £26,279. The number of distillers and rectifiers of spirits in 1834 was 106, and of brewers of ale and porter 255. The quantity of malt made in 1837 was 284,418 quarters, in 1840 it was 175,764 quarters.

The manufactures of hardware, earthenware, leather, glass, and other articles not enumerated, are inconsiderable.

Statement of manufactories of wool, cotton, linen, and silk, in Ireland in 1835—

	Factories.	Persons employed.
Wool	36	1,523
Cotton	28	4,311
Linen	25	3,681
Silk	1	49

It will be observed that this table does not include the number of persons employed in manufactures made in families and not in factories, such as linens particularly.

Fisheries.—The salt-water fisheries of Ireland cannot be said to have ever thriven. The river fisheries form, in many parts of the country, a lucrative source of property. The lakes and rivers abound with trout, pike, perch, eels, and char, and on some of the rivers are established very successful salmon fisheries. The salmon exported to London and Liverpool are packed with ice in boxes. There is on the Shannon an active fishery for trout, herrings, &c., and abundance of excellent fish are sent to Lime-rick and other markets. On the coast of Cork there is a fishery for pilchards, herrings, and other kinds of fish.

Internal improvements.—The *Grand Canal* is the most important work of the kind in Ireland, extending from Dublin to the Shannon, 87 miles, and including a western extension and various branches its total length

is about 156 miles. The *Royal Canal* also connects Dublin harbor with the river Shannon, and is 83 miles in length. The *Limerick Navigation*, *River Barrow Navigation*, *River Boyne Navigation*, *Newry Navigation*, and *Lagan Navigation*, are various improvements of rivers, by canals and slack-water navigation, all constructed at great expense.

A system of *Railroads* for Ireland has been proposed by government, but is not yet carried into effect. The only railroads in operation are a few short ones running from Dublin and Belfast to adjacent places.

Commerce.—The principal commerce of Ireland is carried on with Great Britain. In 1825, the value of exports to all countries amounted to £9,101,956, of which only £697,667 were exported to foreign countries, £8,404,289 being sent to Great Britain. The following table shows the trade between Great Britain and Ireland during part of the last century, according to Lord Sheffield.

Year.	Exports from Ireland to England.			Imports from England into Ireland.		
	(Annual average of 10 years.)					
1710 . . .	£290,429	.	.	.	£288,809	
1720 . . .	362,121	.	.	.	348,551	
1730 . . .	328,086	.	.	.	489,547	
1740 . . .	377,588	.	.	.	667,505	
1750 . . .	612,000	.	.	.	872,259	
1760 . . .	734,548	.	.	.	1,068,983	
1770 . . .	1,032,436	.	.	.	1,818,595	
1780 . . .	1,412,130	.	.	.	1,897,001	

	<i>Exports from Ireland to Scotland.</i>	<i>Imports from Scotland into Ireland.</i>
1781 . . .	£195,685 . . .	£305,167
1782 . . .	149,889 . . .	201,182

The same authority gives the following statement as the quantity of provisions exported from Ireland to America and the West Indies in 1776:

Beef	203,685 bbls.
Pork	72,714 do.
Bacon	24,502 fitches.
Butter	272,411 cwt. ¹
Tongues	67,284
Herrings	15,192 bbls.
Oats	93,679 quarters.
Oatmeal	39,428 barrels.

Parliamentary reports, since the union, give the value of produce and merchandise that have been the objects of trade between Great Britain and Ireland, in various years, as follows:

	<i>Imports into Ireland from Great Britain.</i>			<i>Exports from Ireland to Great Britain.</i>		
1801	.	.	£3,270,350	.	.	£3,537,725
1805	.	.	4,067,717	.	.	4,288,167
1809	.	.	5,316,557	.	.	4,588,305
1813	.	.	6,746,353	.	.	5,410,326
1817	.	.	4,722,766	.	.	5,696,613
1821	.	.	5,338,838	.	.	7,117,452
1825	.	.	7,048,936	.	.	8,531,355

No account of this trade can be given for any year subsequent to 1825,

the commercial intercourse between Great Britain and Ireland having at the end of that year been assimilated by law to the coasting traffic carried on between the different ports of England ; and with the single exception of grain, we have now no official register of the quantity or value of goods or produce received from or sent to Ireland.

The following estimate however is from a parliamentary document, showing the total exports from Ireland to Great Britain and foreign countries, in 1835.

Exports of Ireland in the year 1835.

	Quantity.	Value.
Cows and oxen, No.	98,150	£793,837
Horses, "	4,655	65,453
Sheep, "	125,452	199,986
Swine, "	376,191	893,839
Wheat, quarters,	420,522	812,441
Barley, "	168,946	210,756
Oats, "	1,575,984	1,661,953
Other grain, "	39,637	75,149
Wheat-meal, flour, and oat-meal, cwts.	1,984,480	1,441,966
Potatoes, "	223,398	17,537
Provisions, viz :—		
Bacon and hams, "	379,111	882,158
Beef and pork, "	370,172	723,935
Butter, "	827,009	3,316,306
Lard, "	70,267	182,013
Eggs, "		156,039
Feathers, cwts.	6,432	32,636
Hides and calf-skins, No.	57,657	45,831
Wool, (sheep and lambs,) lbs.	769,184	18,562
Flax and tow, cwts.	163,949	402,773
Total agricultural produce,		11,933,170
Lead and copper ore, cwts.	477,660	179,388
Spirits, gallons,	459,473	75,505
Beer, "	2,686,688	138,981
Linen manufactures, yards,	70,209,572	3,725,054
Do. do. bxs. and bales,	141	5,800
Cotton do.		146,913
Cotton yarn, lbs.	13,428	1,220
Silk manufactures, yards,	8,400	21,740
Woollen do. "	100,320	40,128
Other articles,		369,294
		16,637,193
Foreign and colonial merchandise,		110,489
Total exports in 1835,		£16,747,682
Total exports in 1825,		9,101,956
Increase,		7,645,726

From 1799 to 1806, the quantity of wheat exported from Ireland to

Great Britain was 44,877 quarters, and 222,030 quarters of oats and oat-meal ; while from 1806 to 1827, the annual average exports to the same were 382,533 quarters of wheat, and 1,087,314 quarters of oats and oat-meal. From 1800 to 1819, a period of 20 years, the exports of wheat from Ireland to Great Britain amounted to 2,096,768 quarters, while in the 6 years from 1820 to 1825, inclusive, the exports were greater than for the preceding 20 years, amounting to 2,589,945 quarters. Previous to 1806, Ireland had been treated as a colony, but in that year an act passed permitting the free interchange of grain between Great Britain and Ireland.

The exports of grain to Great Britain were as follows from 1837 to 1841 :

	<i>Wheat.</i>	<i>Other grain.</i>
1837 . .	534,465 quarters.	2,495,828 quarters.
1838 . .	542,583 " . .	2,931,719 "
1839 . .	258,381 " . .	1,984,818 "
1840 . .	174,440 " . .	2,153,526 "
1841 . .	218,708 " . .	2,636,817 "

Number of vessels registered in Ireland in 1840, 1,969—183,854 tons : employing 11,927 men and boys.

Vessels built in Ireland in 1840 ; 42—tons 3,115.

Customhouse duties collected at the principal ports in Ireland in 1836 and 1840 :

	1836.	1840.
Dublin . . .	£898,630 . .	£889,564
Belfast . . .	366,718 . .	365,023
Cork . . .	230,904 . .	256,612
Limerick . . .	146,222 . .	169,490
Waterford . . .	137,126 . .	196,388
Londonderry . . .	99,652 . .	103,900
Newry . . .	58,806 . .	44,039
Sligo . . .	35,863 . .	32,689
Galway . . .	31,769 . .	27,465

Banking capital in Ireland in 1840, £4,926,511 : circulation about 6 millions sterling. Dividends from 8 to 9 per cent.

Savings banks : amount of investments in 1837, £1,829,226

Do. do. in 1840, 2,206,733

Increase in three years, 377,507

ART. V.—COMMERCIAL VOYAGES AND DISCOVERIES.

CHAPTER V.

EARLY VOYAGES OF THE ENGLISH—WINDHAM—CHARTERS GRANTED BY ELIZABETH—VOYAGE OF CAPTAIN LOK TO THE COAST OF GUINEA—VOYAGES OF WILLIAM TOUERSON, MERCHANT, OF LONDON—LIST OF GOODS USED IN THE GUINEA TRADE.

AMONG the earliest to follow in the footsteps of the adventurous Portuguese, were the English. As soon as it was known that the voyages to the coast of Africa were profitable, preparations were made to take a share in it. The first attempt was made by John Fentam and William Fabian in 1481, who commenced fitting out a fleet of vessels for the Guinea trade. Upon the representations, however, of the king of Portugal, who sent a special embassy to the English monarch, the expedition was prohibited from leaving the English ports, and the design was accordingly abandoned. It was supposed that the projected voyage was principally on Spanish account. The Duke Medina Sidonia was said to have been largely interested and to have taken this way of evading, through the help of the English, the exclusive grant made by the pope of the African coast to the Portuguese.

For some time after this, the English gave up all attempts at infringing what were represented to be Portuguese rights, and exerted themselves to discover some other passage to the east. They however extended their voyages to the south as far as the Canaries. In Hakluyt is preserved the contents of a letter written by Nicholas Thorne, merchant in Bristol, in 1526, apprising Thomas Mindal, his factor residing at St. Lucas in Spain, that the Christopher, of Cadiz, bound to the West Indies, had on board several packs of cloth, with packthread, soap, and other goods, which she was to land on the way at Teneriffe, to be exchanged for orchilla sugar and kid-skins. From this it would seem that a trade of the kind had been carried on for some time previous.

In 1551, Captain Thomas Windham made a voyage to Morocco, the only notice of which is in a letter written by James Alday preserved in Hakluyt's collection. The year after, Windham made a voyage to the same ports, Saffie and Santa Cruz. This excited the anger of the Portuguese, who were loud in their threats of violence if they caught the English again in that quarter. Notwithstanding which, Windham in the succeeding year conducted an expedition of three ships and a hundred and forty men to the coast of Guinea. The adventure was however very unfortunate, Windham and most of his men dying from the effects of the climate.

A profitable voyage was made in 1554, by John Lok, who succeeded in obtaining a quantity of gold, ivory, &c., which soon induced others to enter into the trade, which was conducted in defiance of the Portuguese authorities, with whom the adventurers were continually at strife.

In 1585, Queen Elizabeth issued a patent creating a company for the Barbary trade; in 1588, another for the Guinea; and in 1592, another charter was granted for the coast in the neighborhood of Sierra Leone. Under the influence of these charters, which ultimately gave rise to the Royal African Company, the trade with Guinea began to be flourishing and important. Voyages were made, regular narratives of a number of which have been preserved in Hakluyt and other collections. Our space

will enable us to abridge and condense only a few of the most interesting.

About the year 1572 was published a small volume by Richard Eden, containing an account of two voyages made to the coast of Africa; one of which was the unfortunate voyage of Windham, which we have mentioned, and which has been republished at length in Hukluyt, Astley, and others; the other was the voyage of Captain John Lok, made in 1554.

This expedition was fitted out at London, and consisted of the *Trinity* of 140 tons, the *Bartholomew* of 90, and the *John Evangelist* of 140. On the 11th of October, 1554, they set sail from the Thames, but did not quit the shores of England until the 1st of November. On the 17th they came within sight of Madeira, and on the 19th they saw the Canaries and were becalmed under the Peak of Teneriffe—a very usual thing at the present day. From the Canaries they steered for the coast of the continent, and descried it in the neighborhood of Cape Barbas. Running down the coast, touching and trading at several points, they remained until the 13th of February, when they started for home, where they safely arrived, with a cargo consisting of four hundred ounces of gold, more than twenty-two carats fine, thirty-six butts of grains, and two hundred and fifty elephant's teeth, some of which measured by Mr. Eden, astonished him by their size of nine spans in length, and weight of one hundred and twenty pounds apiece. In the account of the voyage are interspersed notices of natural phenomena, winds and currents, descriptions of places with their latitudes, which last, however, are very incorrectly given.

In 1555, William Touerson made his first voyage as captain (he had previously been several times in other capacities,) to Guinea, an account of which written by himself, is to be found in Hakluyt and others. His vessels were the *Hart* and the *Hind* of London, with John Ralph and William Carter sailing-masters. After a tedious passage in which they saw Porto Santo, Madeira, and the Canaries, the appearances of which are noticed at length, they arrived on the coast at a point now occupied by our colony of Liberia. Having overshot the river Sestos, the port that they wished to make, they came to anchor off the mouth of the St. Vincent, a few leagues to the east of the Sestos. In the morning they loaded their boat with basins and other goods, and went into the river, where they soon commenced a trade with the natives who came flocking around them. "They took that day one hogshhead and one hundred weight of grains, and two elephant's teeth at a reasonable rate. They sold them both manillios and margarets, but they liked basins best. For each of which they had about thirty pounds weight of grains, or Guinea pepper, and for an elephant's tooth of thirty pounds weight, they gave six basins." The next morning the natives had increased so much in their prices, at the same time affecting to underrate the English goods, that no trade could be had with them.

Going on shore, the English were well received and treated. "Divers of the women, to divert their visitants, danced and sung after their manner, which was not very agreeable to the ear. There was *Sakere, Sakere, ho! ho! Sakere, Sakere, ho! ho!* Leaping and clapping their hands all the while." But all this, although gratifying to the curiosity, did not promote trade, and the natives continuing too exorbitant in their demands, they weighed anchor and stood along the coast. Occasionally having communication with the negroes, they doubled Cape Palmas, and coasted

along for one hundred leagues to Cape Tres Puntas, beyond which they expected to find a large town and a market for their cloth.

Arrived at a large negro town, they anchored, and after sending a present to the governor, tried to come to some agreement as to the terms upon which the trade should be conducted. But he would suffer his people to buy only the basins; so that morning they disposed of seventy-four brass basins for half an angel weight of gold apiece, and nine white basins for quarter of an angel.

"The next morning they manned their boats and went ashore. They were presently accosted by the same young man who had first come off to the ships, and who seemed to have dealt before with the Portuguese, for he could speak that language a little and was perfect in weights and measures. He offered, as he had done before, one angel and two grains for four ells, making signs that if they would not take that, they might depart; which they did after offering him three ells of rotten cloth for that weight, which he refused. The ships being a league off sent back again for sand and ballast. The governor perceiving that the boats brought no merchandise, and that their intention was to sail away in earnest, made signs again to know if they would not give the four ells; and when they saw the boats ready to depart they came and gave the weight of the angel and twelve grains, and made signs that if the boats would return again they would take three ells. For quicker despatch, Mr. Touerson and John Savill went ashore in one boat, and the master and Richard Curligin in the other. The first took fifty-two ounces and the other boat eight ounces and a half.

"The next day Mr. Touerson went on shore and took three pounds nineteen ounces by noon, when they had sold most of the cloth they carried, and many of the people were departed. While they were on shore they sold thirty-nine basins and two small white saucers for three ounces apiece, which was the most they made by basins."

Leaving this place they stood on to the east, touching at various points, and trading with the natives in the manner we have seen, without any adventures of much interest, until their cargo was exhausted and they set sail for home. On the 14th of May they entered the port of Bristol, having made a very successful voyage.

In 1556, Touerson made a second voyage. Arrived on the coast, the English saw three sail of ships, and made preparations for an engagement. Both fleets manœuvred for the weather-gage. The strange squadron having put themselves in order, tacked and came up in gallant style, with pendants flying and the sound of trumpets.

"When both fleets met they had the weather of ours, which being determined to fight, waved them to come under their lee. This they stoutly refusing, the English demanded of them whence they were. They said of France, and being told that our ships were of London, they asked what Portuguese we had seen. The answer was, none but fishermen. They said that there were certain Portuguese ships gone to the gold coast to defend it, and that they had met with another at the river Sestos of two hundred tons which they had burned, having saved none but the master, two or three negroes, and a few others grievously burned, whom they left ashore there."

The Frenchmen proposed that instead of fighting they should club their forces against the Portuguese and proceed together to the gold coast to

trade. The French admiral offering to supply the English ships with the water and provisions they stood in need of; and in fact, to furl his flag and come under the direction of Touerson. After several conferences and dinners, an arrangement was made by which they were to go together without attempting to injure each other's market, for which purpose, it was agreed that one boat should be sent on shore to settle the prices for both the squadrons, and then only one boat from each ship be allowed to trade. In this way they continued their trade at various points upon the coast, taking a good quantity of gold unmolested by the Portuguese, who, although they had castles and small forts at almost every accessible place, were unable to prevent them. But one day while the boats were ashore, five sail of Portuguese were descried in the offing. The boats were ordered aboard and sail made, but night prevented a fight. The next evening the Portuguese were discovered at anchor and preparations were made to attack them, the English giving their men white scarfs, so that the French might distinguish them if it came to boarding. But again night intervened, and the united squadrons came to anchor not far from the Portuguese.

The next morning both fleets weighed anchor and stood out, the united fleet getting to windward, when the Portuguese tacked to shore and the French and English pursued. "When they were so near the shore that they could not well run any further, they tacked about again and lay to the seaward. Our ships tacked at the same time, and being ahead of them, took in their topsails and waited for them. The first that came up was a small bark that carried good ordnance and sailed so fast that she valued nobody. She shot at the *Tiger*, Touerson's ship, but overshot her, and then let fly at the French admiral, and shot him through in two or three places. After this she went ahead of the English, because they were in their fighting sails. Then came up another caravel under the *Tiger*'s lee, and shot both at her and the Frenchman. She hurt two of his men and shot him through the mainmast. Next came up the admiral under the lee of the *Tiger* also, but he was not able to do them so much harm as the small vessels, because he carried his ordnance higher; neither was the *Tiger* able to make a good shot at any of them, *because she was so weak in the side as to lay all her guns under water!* Mr. Touerson therefore resolved to lay the great ship aboard. But as soon as the French admiral next wore with him, he fell astern and could not fetch him. After that he fell astern two caravels more, and in short could fetch none of them, but fell to leeward of them all, and tacking about to the shore left the English to shift for themselves. The other Frenchman kept the wind also and would not advance. The *Hart* was astern, so that she could not come up to them. For all this the *Tiger* hoisted her topsails and gave the enemy chase. After she had followed them two miles to seaward, they tacked about again towards shore, thinking to pay her off as they went by, and to get the wind of the French admiral. Running by and firing at the *Tiger*, who tacked and followed them, they stood in for the French admiral, while the other English and French ships stood out to sea. Being come up with the French admiral, they poured into him several broadsides, but did not dare board him for fear of the *Tiger*, which was bearing down upon them from windward.

"When the Frenchman was clear of them he lay as near to the wind as he could, and seeing the *Tiger* follow them still towards the shore, ran to

sea after the rest, and left her all alone. The Portuguese perceiving this, turned about with her and she with them, to keep the wind. But they shot not at her, because she had the weather of them and they saw they could do her no hurt. Thus they followed one another until night, and then she lost them. As for all the rest of the ships, they crowded all the sails they could and ran to sea, praying for the Tiger, as they confessed, which was all the help they designed her."

The next day Touerson fell in with his consorts, but they had no great mind for a continuance of the fight, and were therefore not displeased that the Portuguese, having probably arrived at the same conclusion, did not show themselves any more. The trade on the coast continued with considerable success, but not without disputes and difficulties between the allied parties, and even between the English themselves. Coming home they encountered another Portuguese fleet of ships. The English were alone, but the gallant commander would have attacked them had it not been for the master of the Hart, who manœuvred so as to compel the Tiger to give up; for which he was reprimanded by Touerson. Taking offence at which, the Hart separated in the night from her consort and left the Tiger to make her way alone.

On the fifth of May they reached the latitude of the Azores. "On the twenty-third they spied a ship on the weather of them, which proved to be a Frenchman of ninety tons, who came up very boldly; and judging the Tiger to be weak, as indeed she was, because they perceived she had been upon a long voyage, and thought to have laid her on board, some of his men appearing in armor commanded them to strike. They answered them with cross-bows, chain-shot, and arrows, so thick that it made the upper works of the ship fly about their ears, and spoiled the captain, with many of his men; in short, they tore his ship miserably with their great ordnance. This cooling his courage, he began to sail astern and to crowd on his sails to get away as fast as he could. To show their love further, our folks gave him four or five good balls more for his farewell, and thus they were rid of the Monsieurs, who did them no harm at all. There was aboard the Tiger a French trumpeter, who being sick in bed, yet on this occasion took his trumpet and sounded till he could sound no more, and so died."

A few days after they arrived in safety at Plymouth.

A third and last voyage was made by Touerson in 1557, with three ships. On their way out they captured two Hamburg ships, with French property on board, which was taken out and the ships dismissed.

On the tenth of March they fell in with the coast of Guinea, near the mouth of the river Sestos. Here they received news that three French ships had gone on down the coast. Shortly after they were encountered and attacked by a fleet of five Portuguese ships, but without suffering much damage. They resolved next day to continue the fight, but not finding the Portuguese, they made search for the Frenchmen, one of which, the *Mulet*, they succeeded in capturing. She proved to be a fine prize, as she had fifty pounds five ounces of gold.

Continuing the trade for some time with various success, burning several towns where the negroes refused to trade, they at length set sail for England. On their way home they were compelled to abandon the old Tiger, from her leaky condition, after removing her goods and stores. Narrowly escaping being wrecked by a violent storm in the Channel, they

reached the Isle of Wight on the twentieth of October ; thus ending the third and last voyage of Mr. Touerson, who seems to have been a gallant and judicious commander.

The following list appended to his voyages comprises the articles most in request in the Guinea trade.

Manils* of brass, and some of lead ; basins of divers sorts, but the most of latten ; pots of coarse tin of a quart or more ; some wedges of iron ; margarets and certain other slight beads ; horse tails ; blue coral ; basins of Flanders ; linen ; red cloth of low price, and some kersey ; kettles of Dutch-land (Holland) with brazen handles ; some great brass basins, graved, such as in Flanders they set upon their cupboards ; some great basins of pewter and ewers, graven ; some lavers, such as be for water ; great knives of a low price ; slight Flanders caskets ; chests of roan, of a low price, or any other chests ; great pins ; coarse French coverings ; packing sheets, good store ; swords, daggers, frieze mantles and gowns, cloaks, hats, red caps, Spanish blankets, hair heads, hammers, short pieces of iron, slight bells, gloves of a low price, leather bags ; and what other trifles you will.

ART. VI.—MORALS OF TRADE.—No. VI.

When ought a man to fail?—Men generally, in the common concerns of life, have not the choice of success or failure. They fail, against their wills, when they cannot help it. There seems no reason why mercantile affairs should offer any exception ; and, in fact, it does not, to the common use of language in this respect. A man fails when he cannot pay his debts, his property being appraised at the market price, be it high or low. We say he *does fail*, in such a case, whether the world know it or not. But to *fail*, has a technical meaning among merchants. By the conventional rules of trade one may suffer his notes at the bank, and other obligations, to lie over ; it being understood by this act that he surrenders his property to his creditors, and no longer claims to be considered solvent. This course is often taken to avoid utter ruin. When a man finds himself doing a losing business, going down-hill with an accumulated velocity, no wonder he should attempt to stop the machinery of his affairs to prevent being dashed to pieces.

It is our purpose to examine this question, to look at the moral honesty of some of the customs touching failure, and to determine when a man ought to fail, and when he ought not. For this is not an optional step ; one may not at any time retire from the course, or throw up his stakes and seek safety, any more than a passenger, embarked in one of our steam-packets for Europe, may demand of the captain, at any time during the voyage, to put his vessel about and land him at the place from which he sailed. Having embarked in the vessel for the voyage, he must go on ; if not on his own account, perhaps for the sake of others.

It would at first seem that a man has the right to fail, in a mercantile sense, at any time. Such a one says, "Here, gentlemen, is the real property, the bank stock, the personal estate by which I obtained credit

* Bracelets.

from you ; take it ; make the most of it ; it is all I have ;" and thus compel his creditors to take that which they do not want and cannot use, at the time, to advantage. The debtor, in this case, reasons sophistically that, as his credit was based upon property, if he surrenders *that* to his creditors, he is quits with them.

With equal force, the man who assaults his neighbor and gratifies his malice by inflicting chastisement upon him, when he pays the penalty, a fine of thousands of dollars, might reason, that he is quits with society. Society will not divide with him, nor feel recompensed by any amount of money for a breach of the peace, an example of disorder, cruelty, and revenge. Nor will his credit be very extensive who avows a principle which it has been attempted to state. Such a case, the injustice and narrowness of view it embraces, is too clear to need further comment.

We sometimes hear it said that such a one *failed to make money*. The dishonesty of pretending to be pressed by difficulties which have no existence ; to be poor, when rich ; for the sake of obtaining large discount on demands, is also too apparent to need argument.

But we have nicer matters to settle : may a man fail, in all cases, when doing a losing business, which every day throws a darker cloud over his affairs ? May one at option in such a case, while solvent, suffer his notes to lie over and declare himself bankrupt ? By no means. And why ? Because he is not bankrupt ; and besides, because his failure may affect the credit of others—introduce suspicion and distrust into the minds of men, and cause them to say, "If such a house is rotten, who can be trusted ?" So dependent are business men upon one another ; such a sympathy exists between all parts of the machinery of trade, that no man has the right, as a member of the mercantile community, however much his interests require the step, to voluntarily destroy one wheel of it. How many operations may be based upon his solvency ! How many falsehoods may not this technical lie occasion ! How can it happen otherwise than injuriously that a man declares himself unable to pay his debts, when he has the money in his pocket ?

In war, a band of soldiers is often called upon to lay down their lives for their country. The straits of Thermopylæ and the fate of Leonidas and his little band are familiar to all. Our own Bunker Hill battle is quite as glorious ; though being nearer to us and quite familiar, time has not had space to silver it over with that air of venerable antiquity almost necessary to respect for events. Now, we ask, if heroism and self-sacrifice are only to be shown in war ? Is the battle-field the only place where these virtues find a sphere of display ? Commerce is to these times what war was to the ancients, our employment, glory, and boast. The merchant, if he could believe it, may be a kind of commercial Leonidas ; stand in the gap and nobly sacrifice his—dollars to the great interests of trade.

We would deduce an argument to support the expression of such an idea, from the very fact, that it appears almost ridiculous, even laughable, to pretend that men in trade will be governed by any thing that looks like heroism. Interest, pecuniary interest, is the lever which moves ; money the talisman which inspires and supports. Why laughable ? except that *heroism in trade* is a new phrase. Surely, it would be well for us if it were an old one ! But if we cannot expect men to be heroical, we may, at least, demand of them to be just. The question as to when a man ought to fail is still unanswered. He may not fail to make money. He

must not fail to save himself, to the injury of others, when he can help it. If the failure happen, indeed, in fact, and cannot be avoided, the act, being involuntary, is neither good nor bad in its moral character. It is of voluntary failures, technical bankruptcies, that we are now speaking; and undoubtedly there are cases where a man may stop payment for self-preservation, to avoid utter ruin.

Suppose an instance of this kind, where an individual is the holder of large real estate, which, from some depressing circumstances in the country, has fallen to twenty-five per cent of its value. The owner of this property has endorsed paper for his friends, and has notes out of his own to pay, to a large amount, but much within the real value of his estate. If, we say, a time of pressure comes and he is called upon to pay these endorsements and his own notes besides, to do which he must sacrifice his real estate at one quarter its value, if it be in his power, he may take advantage of any rule to gain time; in other words, he may fail, in order to save his property, and that he may pay his debts. He fails to benefit his creditors and himself. He fails much in the same spirit that a bank may stop specie payments.

Technical failures are not the great evils of trade. They are rare occurrences, and when resorted to from a right principle are allowable by the strictest rules of justice. Real failures are far more disastrous in their consequences. Few houses fail soon enough. The complaint is not of the failure of solvent firms, but of the insolvency of firms which pretend to be sound. Here is the great evil in speculating times. And now the question arises, if an insolvent house has any right to pretend to solvency. Is there any fiction, any technical rule in trade, which may authorize so dangerous an experiment? There can be but one answer to this question, and that is in the negative. If even solvent firms, doing a losing business, may fail in justice to themselves and their creditors, insolvent firms *must* fail at the moment they discover their condition. No sophistry can escape this conclusion. However strong may be the hope of recovery, the next week or the next month; however willing friends may be to assist, under the name of "honorary loans," it is demanded by justice, that every insolvent house declare itself so at once. And what is most consistent with justice will be found to be most conducive to interest, credit, and happiness, in the long-run.

And here is found another argument against the existence of "honorary paper." In a former number we attempted to show the injustice of such arrangements. Such paper originates with sinking firms; now if an insolvent house is found to declare itself so, they who prevent the declaration, who rob the mercantile community of this knowledge, to which it is entitled by the laws of trade, must take the responsibility, and by this showing, in case of a failure, are the last persons entitled to be paid.

We hesitate not to say then, that an insolvent house may, by private assistance, still keep up an appearance of solvency, but only upon the condition we have stated, that these new loans, furnished with a full knowledge of the state of affairs, claim no privilege of payment until all other debts are paid to the full amount. In truth these assistances are rather of the nature of a private partnership or agreement, by which the insolvent house is made solvent, and, of course, as it has life and soundness at the bottom, under this arrangement, it may pretend to it with perfect fairness.

In a country like our own, making quite as great experiments in the social and mercantile conditions as in the political, where every man is striving for wealth, because wealth gives him influence and the means of educating himself and his children ; because wealth itself is evidence of talent, at least the talent for accumulation, industry, and frugality ; and, at the very lowest estimate, of that kind of talent called shrewdness, it is especially needful that we discuss questions of this sort, and keep in mind that our passions and enthusiasm betray us often into courses and customs that our calmer judgment does not approve.

It is not to be wondered at that in monarchies and all unnatural governments, where the people are oppressed, and all are trying to make the best they can of a bad bargain, the laws and customs of trade should be formed upon the greatest latitude the law of the land will allow, rather than upon a high tone of morals and the law of conscience. A man defrauds the revenue law in England with few scruples, because he feels that his consent was never asked to its establishment, and he has next to no voice in its distribution. And so it is with all other laws. The subject is in a state of war with the government. Freedom is ever complaining in his heart ; the inalienable right of every man to life, liberty, and a free conscience, is a living thought in every human bosom ; and where these principles are contradicted it will destroy his interest in the government, and give low aims and debasing customs to all departments of human industry. What cannot be said of the demoralizing tendency of regal governments, when we find even the police of the city of London in league with the thieves and felons of the stews ? In such a state every man will seek his own good by the shortest cut, and soon forget, where every thing is settled by statute and act of Parliament, that there is such a principle as moral influence. One of the worst effects of a despotism is, that it kills the soul out of a people, and leaves them merely ingenious bodies and cold intellects.

We have no right then, in our republic, to draw our maxims of trade from other countries which are not free. We must start anew ; and our social and mercantile principles must run parallel with our political principles. We are not living under a government of law, but of liberty. Every merchant and farmer is a part of the government. *The Bible is the statute book of a republic*, and conscience the light by which it must be consulted. We must not ask what is the custom among merchants in England, in this and that country, but what is right for him who believes man capable of governing himself. We have no conflicting interests with the government ; for every man may truly say, "I am a part of the government." In proportion to individual purity, to the sternness and justice of our principles in commerce, which is the life of our country, shall we be pure as a government. The philanthropists of Europe are attempting to neutralize the effects of bad governments upon the people, as affecting their social and commercial relations, by the propagation of doctrines of association ; evidencing their relations to one another ; making every man somewhat dependent upon all others, instead of the competitor of all others ; where everybody's loss is somebody's gain ; where every misfortune is to some one a source of happiness, and every success to one is disappointment to another. The benevolent Fourier was punished, when a boy in his father's shop, for *telling the truth* ; and afterwards was one of a number who destroyed some damaged rice, kept, during a time of scarcity, to command a high price, that they might frustrate the iniquitous avarice

of the merchant and preserve the health of the poor. These two events in his early life may be said to have given rise to those doctrines and that theory, by which he hoped to ameliorate the condition of his countrymen and of the world. His theory, at short hand, is, giving every man a stake in society, and making it the interest of every one to do right.

We did not purpose to discuss this theory. We fear it can never be allowed to gain much popularity under the present governments of Europe. At best, there, it is a sign of the radical change going on in the human mind with regard to the question, "How far a man may submit himself to others"—a glorious sign that men are beginning to think seriously, instead of feeling madly, concerning the abuses to which they have been subjected and still groan under. But in this country we already are an association; every man has a stake in society; it is the interest of every one to do right. If we will but look far and deep enough, every member of society will see this, and be convinced that every wrong in a republic re-acts upon the individual who commits it. It is a question yet to be settled, if there can be a nearer association than that which exists among the members of a republican form of government. The great effort should be then, not to unite them nearer in theory, but to render them so intelligent and virtuous that they may see the relations they *now* hold to one another, and be willing to acknowledge them and act accordingly. The result will be the same whether you divide communities into groups, where from day to day, and in each narrow event, the general consequences of particular acts can be felt, or give them that scope and reach of mind which can infer the general consequences from a wider field of action. The moral obligations of conduct would be as binding in the larger as in the smaller community. It is certain, that if associations do go into successful operation in this country to any considerable extent, that they will but carry out, upon a small scale, what society ought to do under the present organization; at least so far as it regards the protection of industry, scrupulous honesty, and the rights of all classes.

While upon the subject of failures, it is proper to notice what is no small difficulty to the man who only looks on and is not engaged in trade; we mean the apparent contradiction of failing and yet continuing the same course of life, as to style of living, as before. When failures are merely nominal, of the technical kind, to avoid the sacrifice of property, any one may see that it may be done honestly; and, if it is not the most prudent and economical course, still if men choose to run this additional risk, without involving others, we see not how any can have cause of complaint. And again, in *bona fide* failures, a man's creditors, often his friends, in consideration of his fairness, his integrity, and skill, and relying upon his future exertions, stipulate a certain sum to him for family expenses, that he may have domestic comfort and hope, to cheer him in his day of adversity. With such arrangements the world has nothing to do. A man may fail, and still have that best of capitals—a clear conscience, religious trust, and a stout heart; and if to shield those dear to him from the peltings of the storm, he draw largely upon that confidence and credit he so justly has earned, the world should not condemn him, and he should not regard it if it did.

With regard to failures of another character, and men of another stamp, who keep up extravagance in spite of reverses, in spite of their creditors, to show their spirit and disregard of public sentiment, their want of prin-

ciple and common honesty, enough has been and always will be said of such ; so that we may be spared the pain of such melancholy pictures in these pages.

MERCANTILE LAW DEPARTMENT.

DIGEST OF RECENT ENGLISH CASES.

MARINE INSURANCE.

An insurance was effected on the 12th of April on a cargo of cotton then at sea, by five several policies, at the rate of fifty guineas per cent ; and on the 13th, news of the vessel's safety having arrived, a further insurance was bona fide effected by six different policies, at ten and five guineas per cent. The latter insurance, added to the former, exceeded in amount the value of the subject-matter insured, but the former of itself did not : Held, that the assured were entitled to a return of premium on the amount of the over-insurance, to which the underwriters who subscribed the policies of the 13th of April were to contribute ratably, in proportion to the sums insured by them respectively, (the amount of over-insurance to be ascertained by taking into account all the policies ;) but that no return of premium was to be made in respect of the policies effected on the 12th. *Fisk v. Masterman*.

2. The plaintiff declared against the secretary of an insurance company, and alleged the making and publishing of a prospectus stating certain bonuses to have been declared by the rules of the company, and that the secretary had represented that prospectus to contain a true account of the affairs of the company. The declaration, having alleged the breach of several of the rules appointed for the governance of the establishment, averred that the representations of the defendant were false and fraudulent, and that the plaintiff, having been induced by those representations to effect a policy of insurance with the company, and to pay the premiums becoming due upon that policy, he had by means thereof been defrauded and deceived in effecting the said policy, and in making the said payments thereon ; and the said policy of insurance was of much less value to the plaintiff than if the said representations of the defendant had been true in substance and in fact, to wit, £1000 of less value, and by means thereof the plaintiff was likely to lose the whole benefit of his insurance, and the said sums of money so paid by him as premiums for the same : Held to disclose a sufficient cause of action.

To such a declaration the defendant pleaded, that the rules of the society had been and were so duly performed, &c., and the funds of the society had been and were so duly administered, as was necessary for the maintenance and security of the said society, and of such insurances as had been effected : Held ill. *Pontifex v. Bignold*.

BILLS AND NOTES.

The holder of a bill of exchange placed it in the hands of a friend, with directions to present it. The latter got it discounted, and in order to regain possession of it, paid the amount to the bankers of the acceptor on the day it became due: Held, that this evidence negatived a plea of payment by the acceptor. *Deacon v. Stodhart*.

2. A bill of exchange, drawn by the defendant, was indorsed by him to the plaintiffs, S. & Co., who carried on business in partnership at Smethwick, four miles from Birmingham ; by them to the Birmingham and Midland Counties' Bank, and by them to W. It became due on the 17th of August, and was dishonored. On the 18th W. returned it to the bank at Birmingham, who received it on the 19th. The plaintiff S. had previously given directions at the bank, that all communications for his firm should be

made to him at Tremadoc, in Carnarvonshire (in which neighborhood he was engaged in mining concerns.) The bank accordingly, on the 20th of August, sent notice of dishonor by post to S. at Tremadoc, which he received there on the 21st; and by the post of the 22d he sent notice to the defendant: Held, that the notice to S., and therefore that to the defendant, was duly given.

CONTRACT OF SALE.

Where the seller is also the manufacturer of goods, a warranty is implied in the contract of sale, that the goods shall be reasonably fit and proper for the purpose for which they are bought. And *semble* that the rule is not so limited, but extends to all cases where the buyer relies on the skill and judgment of the seller.

MONTHLY COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE.

[BROUGHT DOWN TO JULY 15.]

This is usually a dull season of the year, in a mercantile point of view; but this year there is probably less doing than is generally the case, notwithstanding that the material of a large trade exists in great abundance. The quantity of produce and merchandise in the country will average per head a larger proportion than ever before, and the prices or money-values of all are exceedingly low, requiring but a small amount of money to effect their interchange. Notwithstanding this state of things, no disposition to operate has manifested itself during the past month. The principal reason for this is undoubtedly that which we pointed out in a previous number, viz:—the transition from high to low duties in Great Britain and other countries of Europe simultaneously with efforts in this country to impose high duties in the place of those which have heretofore been collected. Powerful interests are contending, the one to impose a purely revenue duty, and the other to render the tariff restrictive in its general character, in order to afford a supposed protection to certain classes of manufacturers. While this matter is in debate, mercantile speculations are far too hazardous in their nature to permit the usual activity on the part of the leading dealers. But few purchases have been made for export, with the exception of some of those articles of agricultural produce on which the duty in England is undergoing reduction. This inertness in commerce has caused money to be very little sought after, and a large proportion of the funds of sound banks remain unemployed to an extent that seriously affects their profits and reduces the rates of their dividends. As an indication of the great inactivity which prevails throughout the country, we have carefully compiled the following table of the prices of the leading articles in the chief cities of the Union at the latest dates:—

COMPARATIVE PRICES OF THE LEADING ARTICLES IN ALL THE CHIEF CITIES OF THE UNION, AT THE LATEST DATES.

Articles.	Boston.	New York.	Baltimore.	Charleston.
Bagging,.....	17 a 18	13 a 18	a	17 a 20
Beeswax, Americ'n,	25 a 30	28 a 30	28 a 29	— a —
Coffee, Cuba,.....	7½ a 9	8 a 9	9 a 9½	9½ a 9½
Cordage, American,	10½ a 11½	— a 11	12 a 12½	11 a 11½
Flour, super.....	\$6 a 6 12	\$5 94 a 6	\$5 87 a 6	\$7 a 7½
Mackerel, No. 1,....	\$10 50 a 11	\$11 75 a 12 25	\$10 a —	\$14 50 a 15
Raisins, Malaga,....	\$3 25 a 3 50	\$3 a 3 12	\$2 75 a 3	— a —
Gunny Bags,.....	11 a 14	12 a 13	a	— a —
Wheat,.....	a	\$1 25 a 1 28	\$1 30 a 1 35	— a —
Corn,.....	60 a 61	55 a 57	55 a 56	52 a 62
Hemp, clean,.....	— a \$2 15	\$2 20 a 2 30	— a —	— a —
Hops,.....	10 a 11	11 a 14	11 a 12	— a —
Iron, bar,.....	48 a 53	50 a 55	64 a 65	— a —

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COMPARATIVE PRICES, ETC.—Continued.

Articles.	Boston.	New York.	Baltimore.	Charleston.
Lead, pig,.....	3½ a 3½	3½ a —	3½ a 4	6 a —
Cotton, Upland,....	6 a 8½	5 a 9	8 a 9	5 a 10
Whale Oil,.....	31 a 32	— a 32	37 a 40	— a 50
Beef, mess,.....	\$9 a 9 25	\$7 a 7 75	\$9 a 9 50	\$10 a 11
Pork, ".....	\$7 a 8	\$7 50 a 9 50	\$7 25 a 7 50	\$8½ a 9
Hams,.....	5 a 6	6 a 7½	5½ a 8	5 a 9
Lard,.....	8½ a 6½	6 a 7	7½ a —	7½ a 8
Butter,.....	6 a 11	6 a 7	7 a 8	14 a 18
Rice,.....	\$2 87 a 3 12	\$2 50 a 3 12	\$3 a 3 25	\$2 a 2 68
Salt,.....	a \$2 50	\$1 25 a 1 65	\$1 50 a 1 55	\$1 65 a 1 75
Steel, Eng. blister'd,	12½ a 14	12½ a 13½	12½ a 13	12½ a 14
Brandy, Cogniac,...	\$1 40 a 1 50	\$1 25 a 1 75	\$1 25 a 1 50	\$1 35 a 1 75
Whiskey, rectified,.	14 a 15	18½ a 19	21 a 22	18 a 20
Sugar, N. O.	3½ a 5	3 a 5	\$4 a 5 25	4 a 6
Tobacco, 1st.....	5 a 11	3½ a 8	5 a 14	— a —
Tar,.....	\$1 25 a 1 37	\$1 50 a 1 62	— a 1 62	\$1 25 a 1 75
Wool, American,...	40 a 42	35 a 45	32 a 36	— a —

CITIES, ETC.—Continued.

Articles.	Mobile.	New Orleans.	St. Louis.	Cincinnati.
Bagging,.....	20 a 24	12 a 17	13 a 16	— a —
Beeswax, Americ'n,	20 a 25	— a 27	25 a 27	— a 20
Coffee, Cuba,.....	13 a 14	8½ a 9	11 a 12	11 a —
Cordage, American,	13 a 15	11 a 14	10 a 12	12 a 14
Flour, super.....	\$9 a 9 25	\$4 75 a 5 00	\$4 50 a 4 75	\$3 75 a 4 00
Mackerel, No. 1....	16 a 17	— a —	15 a 16	— a 16 50
Raisins, Malaga,....	\$1 50 a 2 00	87 a 100	\$1 25 a 1 50	\$1 25 a 1 50
Gunny Bags,....	— a —	15 a 16	18 a 20	— a —
Wheat,.....	— a —	94 a 95	75 a 78	50 a 60
Corn,.....	— a —	32 a 33	20 a 21	20 a 25
Hemp, clean,.....	— a —	— a 1 70	88 a 100	88 a 1 00
Hops,.....	40 a 50	— a —	18 a 19	20 a 22
Iron, bar,.....	45 a 55	75 a —	4½ a 6	4½ a 5
Lead, pig,.....	\$8 a 8 25	\$3 a 3 06	\$3 00 a 3 05	3 a 4
Cotton, Upland,....	7½ a 10½	4 a 13	— a —	7½ a 10
Whale Oil,.....	50 a 65	— a —	60 a 75	62 a 75
Beef, mess,.....	\$12 a 12 50	\$8 50 a 9 00	\$6 a 6 50	\$6 a 7 00
Pork, ".....	10 a 11	\$6 50 a 7 00	\$5 a 5 25	\$5 a 5 50
Hams,.....	— a —	4 a 5	4 a 5	3 a 5
Lard,.....	11 a 12½	6 a 7	4½ a 5	4 a 5
Butter,.....	37 a 40	8 a 10	6 a 8	5 a 6
Rice,.....	6 a 6½	\$4 75 a 5 00	\$4 75 a 5 00	\$5 a 5½
Salt,.....	\$2 50 a 3 00	\$1 50 a 1 62	\$2 25 a 2 50	35 a 40
Steel, Eng. blister'd,	14 a 17	12 a 13	17 a 18	— a 16½
Brandy, Cogniac,...	\$2 a 2 25	90 a 1 10	\$1 25 a 2 00	\$1 50 a 2 00
Whiskey, rectified,.	28 a 30	15 a 16	17 a 18	12 a 13
Sugar, N. O.	8 a 9	2 a 5½	4½ a 6	4 a 6½
Tobacco, 1st.....	50 a 60	5 a 6	4 a 5½	5 a 6
Tar,.....	5 a —	\$1 70 a 1 75	\$3 a 4 50	\$4 50 a 5 00
Wool, American,...	— a —	8 a 12	— a —	20 a 30

These prices, at many points, are affected by the depreciated nature of the currency ; at Mobile, for instance, the currency is depreciated forty per cent, and prices rule nearly as much higher than at New Orleans, as the difference in the depreciation of the local currencies. Many articles, however, (that of flour in particular, which is from \$3 50 at one point, to \$9 at another,) display a much greater disparity in price than the cost of transportation added to the difference in the currencies. The severe contraction of the circulating medium in all those districts where the banks have heretofore been suspended and are now in process of resumption, is undoubtedly an immediately operating cause for the quietness of the markets of the interior, assisted by the disinclination of the mer-

chants of the Atlantic cities to embark in enterprises. The agricultural products of the country are undoubtedly greater than ever before, and the probability is that as soon as the government shall have come to some determination in relation to those laws which affect trade, the exports of our great agricultural staples will, favored by the reduced duties on them in Great Britain, greatly exceed those of any former years. The following is a table of the prices of four leading articles of produce in the New York market at four periods of each of the last ten years:—

Prices of Cotton, Flour, Beef, Pork, and Wool, for ten successive years in the New York market.

Periods.	Cotton.	Flour.	Beef.	Pork.	Wool.
1833	January, 10 a 13	6 12 a 6 50	8 50 a 9 00	12 50 a 13 00	40 a 45
	April, 10 a 13½	6 12 a 6 37	8 25 a 9 00	13 00 a 14 00	42 a 56
	June, 11 a 15	5 37 a 5 75	9 00 a 10 00	13 75 a 14 25	42 a 56
	October, 15 a 18½	5 62 a 5 81	10 15 a 11 00	16 50 a 17 00	44 a 57
1834	January, 11 a 14	5 50 a 5 75	8 50 a 9 50	14 00 a 15 00	44 a 57
	April, 10½ a 13½	5 00 a 5 25	8 75 a 9 50	12 50 a 14 00	44 a 57
	June, 11 a 14½	4 81 a 5 00	8 75 a 9 50	12 75 a 14 75	44 a 52
	October, 12 a 16	5 19 a 5 37	9 25 a 10 00	13 50 a 14 50	44 a 52
1835	Jan'y, 15½ a 17½	5 50 a 5 62	9 50	13 50 a 14 00	50 a 60
	April, 16 a 20	5 76 a 5 88	10 50 a 11 00	15 00 a 16 00	50 a 65
	June, 17 a 21	6 62 a 6 75	13 00 a 13 50	17 00 a 18 00	50 a 65
	October, 16 a 21	6 00	12 50 a 13 00	18 00 a 18 50	50 a 65
1836	January, 14 a 18½	7 59 a 7 75	9 50 a 10 00	18 00 a 18 50	50 a 63
	April, 16 a 20	7 50 a 7 75	11 50 a 12 25	22 00 a 22 50	50 a 68
	June, 15 a 20	7 00 a 7 25	10 50 a 11 25	19 00 a 21 00	50 a 68
	October, 12 a 22	9 12 a 9 25	9 50 a 10 00	26 00 a 26 50	50 a 68
1837	Jan'y, 15½ a 19½	12 60 a 12 25	12 00 a 13 50	23 00 a 25 00	50 a 68
	April, 11 a 16	9 87 a 10 12	13 00 a 15 00	21 50 a 22 50	50 a 68
	May, 6 a 7	[Suspension of banks—lowest point in cotton.]			
	June, 8½ a 12	9 62 a 10 00	13 00 a 14 50	18 50 a 19 00	50 a 68
1838	October, 9½ a 13½	9 00 a 9 50	13 50 a 14 50	18 00 a 18 50	47 a 62
	January, 8 a 12½	8 50	14 00 a 14 50	17 50 a 18 00	43 a 56
	April, 7½ a 11½	7½ a 8 00	14 00 a 14 50	16 50 a 17 00	38 a 47
	June, 9 a 13	7 37 a 7 62	14 50 a 15 00	19 00 a 20 00	36 a 40
1839	October, 9½ a 14½	8 12 a 8 25	15 50 a 16 00	23 00 a 24 00	38 a 50
	January, 12 a 17	8 87 a 9 00	17 00 a 17 50	22 00 a 24 00	42 a 55
	April, 13½ a 17	8 25 a 8 50	16 00 a 16 50	18 50 a 19 00	42 a 55
	June, 12 a 15½	5 00 a 6 25	15 00 a 15 50	18 00 a	37½ a 45
1840	October, 12 a 15½	5 75 a 6 00	13 00 a 13 50	15 00 a 20 00	37 a 42
	January, 10 a 12½	6 37 a 6 50	14 00 a 14 50	12 50 a 15 00	38 a 40
	April, 7 a 11	5 77 a 5 50	15 00 a 15 50	14 00 a 15 00	40 a 42
	June, 7½ a 11	5 00 a 5 25	15 00 a 15 50	14 00 a 14 25	40 a 41
1841	October, 9 a 13	5 31 a 5 37	12 00 a	14 50 a 15 00	40 a 45
	January, 9 a 12½	5 25 a 5 31	10 50 a 10 75	13 00 a 13 50	44 a 46
	April, 9 a 13	5 18 a 5 25	10 25 a 10 50	12 00 a 12 50	44 a 46
	June, 10 a 12	5 50 a	9 50 a 10 00	10 00 a 11 00	42 a 44
1842	October, 10 a 12½	6 12 a 6 25	9 00 a 9 50	10 00 a 11 00	40 a 42
	January, 9 a 12	6 25 a 6 00	a 10 00	8 50 a 9 50	40 a 41
	April, 7 a 11	5 75 a 5 87	9 00 a 9 50	8 25 a 8 50	38 a 40
	July, 5 a 10	5 94 a 6 00	7 00 a 7 50	7 50 a 8 50	30 a 33

The three first of these articles are by far lower now than at any period before, during the ten years. The year 1840 was the great year of the export of flour. A larger amount was then exported than ever before. In the year 1831, the quantity exported reached within 90,000 barrels of that of 1840. The prices above given are those of New York city only. We have, however, constructed the following table from the reports of the Secretary of the Treasury, with the price according to the average value

there given, which shows as nearly as may be the average prices for the whole year for the whole Union, as follows:—

Annual Exports of Four Articles of Agricultural Produce from the United States for twelve years, with the export value; from Treasury documents.

Year.	COTTON.		FLOUR.		BEEF.		PORK.	
	Pounds.	Price.	Barrels.	Price.	Barrels.	Price.	Barrels.	Price.
1829.....	264,837,236	10	835,385	5 90	51,100	59,539
1830.....	298,459,102	9½	1,227,434	4 95	46,842	45,645
1831.....	276,979,784	9½	1,806,529	5 75	60,770	51,263
1832.....	322,215,122	9½	864,819	5 75	55,507	8 87	88,625	11 00
1833.....	324,696,604	11½	955,768	5 90	64,322	8 75	105,870	10 25
1834.....	384,737,907	12½	835,352	5 45	46,181	9 00	82,691	11 33
1835.....	387,358,992	14½	779,396	5 50	38,028	9 50	61,887	11 60
1836.....	423,631,308	16½	505,400	7 50	50,226	9 75	22,550	17 00
1837.....	444,211,537	14½	318,719	9 94	28,076	11 00	24,583	18 00
1838.....	595,952,297	10½	448,161	8 00	23,491	14 00	31,356	17 00
1839.....	413,624,212	13½	923,151	7 56	16,189	13 00	41,301	18 00
1840.....	743,941,061	8½	1,897,501	5 37	19,681	13 50	66,281	16 00

A multiplicity of circumstances have been yearly brought to bear upon the market prices of any particular article of agricultural produce, independently of the natural effects of supply and demand. These have, during the ten years embraced in the table, grown mostly out of the operation of the currencies of Great Britain (the chief market of sale) and also in this country. The three years 1829–30–31 were short-crop years in England. The succeeding six years were average and good crops; and in one year, 1835, the supply of grain in Great Britain was equal to the demand, and none was imported. So long a period of favorable harvests engendered a degree of commercial confidence very favorable to the growth of paper credits. Accordingly, speculation in England made rapid progress. From 1832 to 1836, an immense number of joint-stock banks were created, and it has been estimated that the amount of capital invested in machinery in Lancashire nearly doubled in those years. The consequence was, that the demand for and consumption of the raw material largely increased. The banking speculation at the same time extended itself to this country, and, applied to production, caused the increased demand abroad to be more nearly supplied. In those years in the southern states nearly \$15,000,000 was borrowed as bank capital, based upon the lands of cotton growers. The effect of this was, as is seen in the table, to increase the exports of cotton nearly 100 per cent. Nevertheless, the impulse given to manufacturing was so great that the prices continued to rise under that increased supply. The overproduction of manufactures became apparent in the latter part of 1838, and has since each year been more painfully evident; and, under a decreased production this year, cotton is lower than for a length of time.

In the column of flour exports it is seen that the quantity exported depends very much upon the price in this market. Thus, in the year 1834, which was one of abundance in England, nearly as much flour was exported from this country as in 1839, which was one of a short crop in England, and the year in which the largest imports of foreign wheat into Great Britain were made. That year in this country was one of great banking prosperity: that is to say, the banks were much extended, and flour, although abundant, commanded high paper prices in the first months of the year—a fact evident in the above table of prices in the New York market. The currency for the future in this country promises to approximate to the specie standard very closely; and with the abundant harvests that are everywhere rewarding the industry of the farmers, warrant that prices will be very low. On the other hand, England has reached a point at which her supplies of grain are avowedly insufficient to feed the inhabitants, and Parliament

has greatly reduced the average at which grain may be admitted. We may now look back at the general state of the wheat and flour trade of England during the same period as is embraced in the above table of exports from this country. For this purpose we will take the following tables from parliamentary papers, showing the quantity imported in each year into the United Kingdom; also the stock on hand at the close of the years; and also the average quantity admitted for consumption at each rate of duty during that period:

Import of Foreign and Colonial Wheat and Flour into Great Britain; stock on hand at the close of the year; and quantity entered at each rate of duty, from 1828 to 1841.

	IMPORTS OF WHEAT AND WHEAT FLOUR.	STOCK AT CLOSE OF YEAR.	ENTERED FOR CONSUMPTION AND DUTY.		
			Rate of Duty.	Wheat. Quarters.	Wheat Flour—cwt.
1829	1,725,781	247,752
1830	1,663,283	144,367
1831	2,309,970	901,445
1832	469,902	702,293
1833	297,565	822,852	1 0	3,907,781	1,276,731
1834	176,321	774,185	2 8	2,788,277	835,406
1835	66,905	681,158	6 8	1,996,102	518,897
1836	241,743	631,443	10 8	783,280	238,592
1837	559,942	644,671	13 8	548,348	466,432
1838	1,371,957	25,729	16 8	298,677	213,707
1839	2,875,605	175,682	18 8	76,200	44,788
1840	2,432,765	139,408	31 8	1,496	87
1841	2,500,000	500,000	49 8	2	36
Total entered in quarters,.....				11,322,085	3,768,376
" " bushels,.....				90,576,680	10,420,837

This gives the fact that more than one half of the whole imports was admitted at an average duty of 2½ l. per bushel, or at about six cents. The new duties proposed will reduce the minimum at which flour may be admitted, and greatly favor the import. The following is a table of the new corn duties, reduced to rates per bushel, in English and in United States currency:—

CORN DUTIES OF ENGLAND PER OLD AND NEW TARIFF.

AVERAGE PRICE IN ENGLAND.			OLD DUTY.		NEW DUTY.	
British Currency.	U. S. Currency.		Brit. Cur.	U. S. Cur.	Brit. Cur.	U. S. C.
s. d.	s. d.		s. d.		s. d.	
under 6 4	or	under 1 53	4 5½	or 1 08	2 6	or 60 cts.
6 4½	"	6 6 " 1 53	4 4	" 1 04	2 4½	" 57 "
6 6	"	6 10½ " 1 56	4 2½	" 1 01	2 3	" 54 "
6 10½	"	7 0 " 1 65	4 1	" 99	2 1½	" 51 "
7 0	"	7 1½ " 1 68	3 11½	" 96	2 0	" 48 "
7 1½	"	7 3 " 1 71	3 10	" 92	1 10½	" 45 "
7 3	"	7 4½ " 1 74	3 8½	" 90	1 9	" 42 "
7 4½	"	7 6 " 1 77	3 7	" 86	1 7½	" 39 "
7 6	"	7 7½ " 1 80	3 4	" 81	1 6	" 36 "
7 7½	"	7 9 " 1 83	3 2½	" 77	1 4½	" 33 "
7 9	"	7 10½ " 1 86	3 1	" 74	1 3	" 30 "
7 10½	"	8 0 " 1 89	2 11½	" 72	1 1½	" 27 "
8 0	"	8 1½ " 1 92	2 10	" 69	1 0	" 24 "
8 1½	"	8 3 " 1 95	2 8½	" 63	0 10½	" 21 "
8 3	"	8 7½ " 1 98	2 1	" 51	0 9	" 18 "
8 7½	"	8 9 " 2 07	1 8½	" 42	0 7½	" 15 "
8 9	"	8 10½ " 2 10	1 4	" 33	0 6	" 12 "
8 10½	"	9 0 " 2 13	0 10	" 20	0 4½	" 09 "
9 0	"	9 1½ " 2 16	0 4	" 08	0 3	" 06 "
9 1½ over		2 19 over	0 1½	" 03	0 1½	" 03 "

This is a great reduction from former rates, and ensures a steadiness of supply into England, which is a very important item. The above table of imports into England shows that during the six years of good crops, the foreign corn trade of England nearly ceased; and, at the close of 1838, the warehouses were nearly exhausted. An immense and sudden addition was then made to the foreign purchases, against which no increased exports of merchandise from Great Britain had made provision. This produced a revulsion, and nearly reduced the Bank of England to bankruptcy.

The facts here shown lead to two conclusions, viz:—that the demand for foreign grain in England will hereafter be large and regular; and, that the supplies in the United States will be abundant and cheap. As to the ability of the United States to supply Great Britain in competition with the countries of Europe, one fact is worth a volume of argument, and that fact is contained in the following table:—

Statement of Bushels of Wheat entered in England for Consumption; wheat exports from the United States in the same time; and the price of flour per barrel at each period in the United States.

Year.	Bushels entered in England.	Exports from U. S. to G. B.	Av. Prices of Flour in the U. S.
1837	4,079,536	115,000	9 94
1838	10,365,695	236,000	8 00
1839	21,604,840	2,528,000	7 56
1840	18,502,120	6,831,000	5 37

From this it appears that in 1839, when the largest imports into Great Britain took place, the United States supplied but ten per cent; and in 1840 it supplied thirty-five per cent of the whole import. The shipments to the dominions of Great Britain have hitherto formed a large proportion of the exports from the United States. The following table will show the foreign flour trade of the United States for seven years, from 1833 to 1841:—

Export of Flour from the United States, for a series of years.

Where to.	1834.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.
Swedish West Indies,.....	6,390	5,732	3,897	3,836	3,083	7,119	7,882
Danish West Indies,.....	45,923	55,354	50,448	27,973	25,583	35,501	45,148
Dutch East Indies,.....	2,747	3,152	867	400	1,430	846	2,300
“ West Indies,.....	13,020	13,103	14,435	8,269	6,510	9,424	13,157
England,.....	19,687	5,376	161	8,295	167,582	620,728
Gibraltar,.....	22,339	16,366	1,008	6,344	12,891
British East Indies,.....	2,185	1,400	894	15	55	2,550	4,565
“ West Indies,.....	95,816	118,307	70,305	68,328	75,524	139,340	232,329
“ American Colon's,.....	134,975	75,406	42,300	23,316	29,591	149,407	432,356
France,.....	2,805	501	400	74,416
French West Indies,.....	5,043	6,827	3,724	1,467	2,981	11,486	10,491
Hayti,.....	47,146	59,212	26,804	15,557	14,732	16,839	28,724
Cuba,.....	102,837	93,511	92,390	55,537	79,681	90,459	69,819
Spanish West Indies,.....	13,115	19,423	16,065	9,310	13,135	15,369	20,966
Madeira,.....	5,096	3,100	6	1,040	3,087
Cape de Verdes,.....	2,367	1,716	411	216	259	1,002	4,167
Texas,.....	5,307	8,354	7,534	9,861
Mexico,.....	14,976	19,744	16,623	12,332	12,738	14,221	15,226
Honduras,.....	2,389	7,310	6,576	2,900	3,369	3,435	7,879
Central America,.....	3,103	4,054	1,197	566	1,597	1,811
Colombia,.....	19,563	22,821	15,603	12,503	7,928	577	28,707
Brazil,.....	152,603	161,460	118,470	60,180	125,275	177,337	197,823
Argentine Republic,.....	36,776	15,393	2,114	200	11,900	12,063
Chili,.....	15,683	15,314	6,732	1,385	7,053	4,551	8,157
Peru,.....	2,000	3,439	2,500
South America,.....	48,335	33,722	1,000	2,524
West Indies,.....	10,039	9,226	6,642	4,251	5,324	14,407	11,262
Africa,.....	1,827	1,433	1,484	477	1,595	1,780	2,218
Northwest Coast,.....	403	1,244	325	222	150	352	3,935
Other Ports,.....	5,395	9,353	5,919	600	1,500	3,000	10,000
Total, barrels,.....	835,352	779,396	505,400	318,719	488,161	923,151	1,597,501
Average price,.....	\$5 45	\$5 50	\$7 50	\$9 94	\$8 00	\$7 56	\$5 37
Imports							
Wheat—Bushels,.....	1,225	228,769	583,898	3,021,259	804,536	32,884	503
“ Value,.....	\$1,213	\$193,647	\$493,159	\$4,154,325	\$896,560	\$35,270	\$639
Flour—cwt.,.....	32	28,483	66,731	30,709	12,731	7,348	329
“ Value,.....	81	\$29,976	\$62,341	\$122,651	44,272	22,477	430

This forms a very remarkable table, showing that regularly as the price advanced in this country from 1834 to 1837, the quantity imported increased, and as regularly decreased until it ceased in 1840. In 1837, wheat equivalent to 782,000 barrels of flour was imported, and less than half that quantity was exported, notwithstanding that a surplus actually existed in the country. A large proportion of the imports of that year were actually from England, and the remainder mostly from the north of Europe. Hence, it appears that in years of scarcity in Europe, or when the failure of successive crops in England has reduced the stocks in Europe, the supplies from this country come into requisition, and must raise and permanently support prices in the United States at an average above those of the average of the three years prior to 1836, which was \$5 69 per barrel. We allude to prices based only upon specie currency of a standard near that of the countries whence the demand emanates. A steady demand at such prices will do more to develop the inexhaustible agricultural resources of this country than all the bank paper that could under any circumstances be created. To show the capacity of the country in some degree, we annex the following table of the population and agricultural products per head of seventeen of the leading states, divided into free and slaveholding states, compiled from the census of 1840:—

Population and Agricultural Products per head in Seventeen States of the United States.

States.	POPULATION.		Cere'l Gr'ns. Bushels.	Potatoes. Bush.	PER HEAD.			
	Free.	Slave.			Cattle. No.	Sheep. No.	Swine. No.	Horses. No.
Maine,...	502,000		6.80	20.70	0.65	1.30	0.23	0.12
Mass.....	738,000		5.51	7.30	0.38	0.51	0.19	0.08
Conn.....	310,000		13.28	11.00	0.78	1.30	0.43	0.11
N. York, 2,429,000			21.29	12.39	0.79	2.11	0.78	0.19
Penn.....	1,724,000		33.09	5.53	0.68	1.02	0.88	0.21
Ohio,.....	1,519,000		43.61	3.82	0.80	1.33	1.38	0.28
Michigan,	212,000		32.18	9.96	0.87	0.47	1.39	0.14
Illinois,...	476,000		65.50	4.26	1.31	0.41	3.14	0.42
<i>Slave States.</i>								
Virginia,.	771,000	449,000	48.34	2.37	0.82	1.04	1.60	0.26
N. Car...	507,000	246,000	38.88	3.04	0.82	0.71	2.19	0.22
S. Car...	167,000	327,000	29.01	4.54	0.96	0.39	1.48	0.22
Georgia,.	410,000	281,000	35.30	1.85	1.28	2.39	2.11	0.22
Al'bama,	338,000	253,000	39.27	2.89	1.13	0.27	2.41	0.24
Mississip.	181,000	195,000	37.37	4.33	1.63	0.34	2.66	0.29
Louis'na,	184,000	169,000	17.15	2.36	1.08	0.27	0.91	0.28
Tenn.....	746,000	183,000	68.64	2.29	1.00	0.89	3.53	0.41
Kentuck.	595,000	184,000	67.96	1.35	1.01	1.29	2.95	0.51
TOTAL,								
U. States,	17,062,000		36.07	6.35	0.88	1.13	1.54	0.25

This was the product according to the census for the year in which the greatest export of flour was made. Since that year the product has been estimated at an increase of 25 per cent, giving an average per inhabitant of forty and one half bushels. The produce of animals has increased in a much greater proportion. The capacity of the population to consume these products increases only in the numerical proportion of the increase of that population. The surplus is large, and constantly increasing. It must have an outlet, which can be facilitated only by low duties on return goods.

We have gone a little into those general causes which we believe to be the origin of the present depression, and also the elements of future improvement. Since our last, the banks of Tennessee have resolved to return to specie payments on the 1st of August, and those of Virginia have in convention solemnly resolved to return to specie payments on the 15th of September. Unfortunately, however, two of the banks of New Orleans

which paid specie at the date of our last have been compelled to suspend, in consequence of the untiring opposition of the debtors of the banks who wish to discharge their debts in a depreciated currency; and also of the insolvent banks whose credit suffered severely by the contrast between them and the sound banks. This is a melancholy result, and gives indication of a poor state of intelligence on the part of a community which suffers the deserving institutions to be sacrificed to the cupidity of those whose object it is to fleece the public. The hostility existing between the institutions operates as a punishment upon the public that have suffered the insolvent banks to go on and do business. Thus, the different banks will take none but their own notes on deposit or in payment of debts. Hence, when a person owes a note at one institution, and holds the notes of another, he must sell the notes of the one and purchase those of the other. The brokers charge a difference of nearly five per cent in buying and selling. A direct and onerous tax is thus imposed upon the bank debtors, whose influence mainly brought about the existing state of affairs. The probability is, however, that the new crops will all move on a specie basis. In many parts of Alabama the planters have already determined to take nothing but specie funds for their cotton, and in most of the other states a specie currency prevails; so that inevitable and ruinous discredit must attend those institutions which continue their suspensions.

The uncertain state of the government finances has had a great effect upon the stocks of the several states. So far, the Secretary has been unable to negotiate more than about \$1,500,000 of the whole loan. It is true no attempt has yet been made in the foreign market, but preparations are making to send out an agent under such auspices as is thought may obtain the money, notwithstanding the low state of American credit abroad. The absolute necessity which exists for the government to have the money at some rate, and the little chance supposed to exist of getting it abroad, have caused fears to be entertained that finally it may be forced upon this market in a manner to sink all stocks. This state of things has caused the prices of the soundest stocks to give way to a great extent. New York state stocks have fallen five to six per cent. Ohio and Kentucky have given way nearly ten per cent. Pennsylvania has fallen twelve per cent, in consequence of the failure of that state to provide for its interest. At this time last year, Pennsylvania 5's sold at 80; they now are heavy at 32 per cent, and that state is classed among the dishonored states. The probability is that when the settlement of the tariff question shall have opened the way for some improvement in the activity of commercial operations, that the demand for money for those purposes will tend to depress the prices of stocks still further. There is now no foreign demand for stocks, and in ordinary seasons American capital is too valuable to be locked up in government five, six, or seven per cent securities. The southern states have in former years borrowed money in Europe at six per cent, and reloaned it to cotton growers at eight and nine per cent. This is an indication that when, through discredit, the capital of Europe is no longer open to us, our own stocks must fall to very low rates.

The comptroller of the city of New York advertised proposals for a loan of \$500,000 in a seven per cent stock, redeemable in ten years, interest payable quarterly. This loan was promptly taken, at par, by private capitalists, for investment. It is the balance of the amount authorized by the last legislature, and its object is to discharge the temporary loans falling due.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

EXPORTS AND IMPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES,

AT FOUR SUCCESSIVE PERIODS.

The following tabular statement, derived from the report of the committee of the house of representatives on commerce, exhibits the entire import and export trade of the United States at four successive periods, beginning with the year 1825 and ending with 1840; and also, our imports and exports in the trade of each of the several countries designated in the tables, during the same years. The object of this table is to show the relative value of the trade of each nation referred to, and its increase or decrease during the term:—

Statement showing the total import and export of the United States at the four periods as follows:

	<i>Imports.</i>	<i>Exports.</i>
1825.....	\$96,340,075	\$99,535,388
1830.....	70,876,920	73,849,508
1835.....	129,391,247	121,693,577
1840.....	107,141,519	131,571,950

Of these amounts there were imported from and exported to—

GREAT BRITAIN AND DEPENDENCIES.				FRANCE AND DEPENDENCIES.			
	<i>Imports.</i>	<i>Exports.</i>		<i>Imports.</i>	<i>Exports.</i>		
1825	\$42,394,812	\$44,217,525		\$11,835,581	\$11,891,327		
1830	26,804,984	31,647,881		8,240,885	11,806,238		
1835	65,949,307	60,167,699		23,362,584	20,335,066		
1840	39,130,923	70,322,986		17,908,127	22,355,905		

SPAIN AND DEPENDENCIES.				BRAZIL.			
	<i>Imports.</i>	<i>Exports.</i>		<i>Imports.</i>	<i>Exports.</i>		
1825	\$9,322,791	\$5,840,720		\$2,156,707	\$2,393,754		
1830	8,373,681	6,049,051		2,491,460	1,843,238		
1835	15,617,140	7,069,279		5,574,466	2,608,656		
1840	14,019,650	7,618,347		4,927,296	2,506,574		

MEXICO.				THE HANSE TOWNS.			
	<i>Imports.</i>	<i>Exports.</i>		<i>Imports.</i>	<i>Exports.</i>		
1825	\$4,044,647	\$6,470,144		\$2,739,526	\$3,121,033		
1830	5,235,241	4,837,458		1,873,278	2,274,880		
1835	9,490,446	9,029,221		3,841,943	3,528,276		
1840	4,175,001	2,515,341		2,521,493	4,198,459		

NETHERLANDS AND DEPENDENCIES.				RUSSIA.			
	<i>Imports.</i>	<i>Exports.</i>		<i>Imports.</i>	<i>Exports.</i>		
1825	\$1,253,369	\$5,895,499		\$2,067,110	\$287,401		
1830	1,356,765	4,562,437		1,621,899	416,575		
1835	2,963,718	4,411,053		2,395,245	585,447		
1840	2,326,896	4,546,085		2,572,427	1,169,481		

SWEDEN AND DEPENDENCIES.				DENMARK AND DEPENDENCIES.			
	<i>Imports.</i>	<i>Exports.</i>		<i>Imports.</i>	<i>Exports.</i>		
1825	\$1,417,598	\$569,550		\$1,539,592	\$2,701,088		
1830	1,398,640	961,729		1,671,218	2,014,085		
1835	1,316,508	602,593		1,403,902	1,780,496		
1840	1,275,468	652,546		976,678	1,193,500		

COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION OF THE UNITED STATES,
FROM 1830 TO 1840.

I.—Statement showing the total amount of imports and exports, the aggregate tonnage, domestic and foreign, entered into the United States and cleared therefrom, and the portions thereof belonging to the several countries therein designated, in each year, from 1830 to 1840, both inclusive: derived from the Appendix to the Report of the Hon. J. P. Kennedy, from the Committee on Commerce, May 28, 1842.

1830.—Total import of the United States,.....	\$70,876,920
“ “ export “	73,849,508
American tonnage entered,.....	967,227 tons.
Foreign “ “	131,900
Total entered,	1,099,127
American tonnage cleared,.....	971,760 tons.
Foreign “ “	133,436
Total cleared,	1,105,196

Among the foreign tonnage were—

	<i>Entered.</i>	<i>Cleared.</i>
Of British,.....	87,231 tons.	87,823 tons.
French,.....	11,256	11,331
Spanish,.....	12,299	11,629
Hanseatic,.....	9,653	9,006
Dutch,.....	630	1,130
Swedish,.....	4,136	3,979
Danish,.....	1,234	1,218
Russian,.....	264	264
Prussian,.....	287	287
Austrian,.....	—	171
Mexican,.....	2,718	2,997

1831.—Total import of the United States,.....	\$103,191,124
“ “ export “	81,310,583
American tonnage entered,.....	922,952 tons.
Foreign “ “	281,948
Total entered,	1,204,900
American tonnage cleared,.....	972,504 tons.
Foreign “ “	271,994
Total cleared,	1,244,498

Among the foreign tonnage were—

	<i>Entered.</i>	<i>Cleared.</i>
Of British,.....	215,887 tons.	211,270 tons.
French,.....	11,701	7,165
Spanish,.....	19,618	19,072
Hanseatic,.....	11,176	12,319
Dutch,.....	1,022	1,913
Swedish,.....	3,653	2,821
Danish,.....	6,250	4,971
Russian,.....	577	577
Prussian,.....	312	312
Austrian,.....	—	—
Mexican,.....	10,037	9,850

1832.—Total import of the United States,.....	\$101,029,266
“ “ export “	87,176,943
American tonnage entered,.....	949,622 tons.
Foreign “ “	393,038
Total entered,	1,342,660
American tonnage cleared,.....	974,865 tons.
Foreign “ “	387,505
Total cleared,	1,362,370

Among the foreign tonnage were—

	<i>Entered.</i>	<i>Cleared.</i>
Of British,.....	288,841 tons.....	284,886 tons.
French,.....	22,638	23,257
Spanish,.....	26,942	29,066
Hanseatic,.....	22,351	19,540
Dutch,.....	2,860	4,369
Swedish,.....	9,784	8,468
Danish,.....	6,146	5,162
Russian,.....	1,592	1,592
Prussian,.....	—	—
Austrian,.....	1,373	1,273
Mexican,.....	7,595	7,207
1833.—Total import of the United States,.....		\$108,118,311
“ “ export		90,140,433
American tonnage entered,.....		1,111,441 tons.
Foreign “ “		496,705
	Total entered,	1,608,146
American tonnage cleared,.....		1,142,160 tons.
Foreign “ “		497,039
	Total cleared,	1,639,199

Among the foreign tonnage were—

	<i>Entered.</i>	<i>Cleared.</i>
Of British,.....	383,487 tons.....	377,250 tons.
French,.....	20,917	25,620
Spanish,.....	33,560	33,067
Hanseatic,.....	29,285	27,208
Dutch,.....	1,309	6,519
Swedish,.....	12,169	11,947
Danish,.....	4,669	4,310
Russian,.....	1,591	841
Prussian,.....	574	1,084
Austrian,.....	2,013	1,701
Mexican,.....	3,976	3,359
1834.—Total import of the United States,.....		\$126,521,332
“ “ export		104,336,973
American tonnage entered,.....		1,074,670 tons.
Foreign “ “		568,052
	Total entered,	1,642,722
American tonnage cleared,.....		1,134,220
Foreign “ “		577,700
	Total cleared,	1,711,920

Among the foreign tonnage were—

	<i>Entered.</i>	<i>Cleared.</i>
Of British,.....	453,495 tons.....	458,067 tons.
French,.....	23,649	24,537
Spanish,.....	32,056	37,804
Hanseatic,.....	25,265	24,513
Dutch,.....	2,011	2,599
Swedish,.....	13,392	14,954
Danish,.....	5,788	5,058
Russian,.....	749	962
Prussian,.....	934	1,071
Austrian,.....	1,802	2,453
Mexican,.....	5,980	2,450
1835.—Total import of the United States,.....		\$149,895,742
“ “ export		121,693,577
American tonnage entered,.....		1,352,653 tons.
Foreign “ “		641,310
	Total entered,	1,993,963

American tonnage cleared,.....	1,400,517 tons.
Foreign " "	630,824
Total cleared,	2,031,341

Among the foreign tonnage were—

	<i>Entered.</i>	<i>Cleared.</i>
Of British,.....	529,922 tons.....	523,417 tons.
French,.....	15,457	14,354
Spanish,.....	24,497	26,245
Hanseatic,.....	28,218	28,421
Dutch,.....	3,112	2,148
Swedish,.....	15,661	13,479
Danish,.....	3,570	3,186
Russian,.....	250	330
Prussian,.....	1,272	942
Austrian,.....	3,125	2,509
Mexican,.....	11,057	10,531

1836.—Total import of the United States,.....	\$189,980,035
" " export "	128,663,040

American tonnage entered,.....	1,255,384 tons.
Foreign " "	680,213
Total entered,	1,935,597

American tonnage cleared,.....	1,315,523 tons.
Foreign " "	674,721
Total cleared,	1,990,244

Among the foreign tonnage were—

	<i>Entered.</i>	<i>Cleared.</i>
Of British,.....	544,774 tons.....	538,921 tons.
French,.....	19,519	18,486
Spanish,.....	10,428	10,970
Hanseatic,.....	39,525	43,256
Dutch,.....	6,199	7,250
Swedish,.....	23,630	22,030
Danish,.....	8,463	8,065
Russian,.....	4,486	3,533
Prussian,.....	3,729	3,372
Austrian,.....	8,276	7,427
Mexican,.....	4,855	4,106

1837.—Total import of the United States,.....	\$140,989,277
" " export "	117,419,376

American tonnage entered,.....	1,299,720 tons.
Foreign " "	765,703
Total entered,	2,065,423

American tonnage cleared,.....	1,266,622 tons.
Foreign " "	756,292
Total cleared,	2,022,914

Among the foreign tonnage were—

	<i>Entered.</i>	<i>Cleared.</i>
Of British,.....	543,020 tons.....	536,420 tons.
French,.....	26,286	26,070
Spanish,.....	11,342	10,562
Hanseatic,.....	70,703	65,538
Dutch,.....	14,628	14,670
Swedish,.....	25,660	26,612
Danish,.....	16,107	17,486
Russian,.....	4,081	4,592
Prussian,.....	19,825	17,973
Austrian,.....	16,779	17,774
Mexican,.....	818	1,426

1838.—Total import of the United States,.....	\$113,717,406
" " export "	108,486,616

American tonnage entered,.....	1,302,974 tons.
Foreign " "	592,110
Total entered,	1,895,084
American tonnage cleared,.....	1,408,761 tons.
Foreign " "	604,166
Total cleared,	2,012,927

Among the foreign tonnage were—

	<i>Entered.</i>	<i>Cleared.</i>
Of British,.....	484,702 tons.	486,904 tons.
French,.....	20,570	21,849
Spanish,.....	13,183	13,607
Hanseatic,.....	37,538	39,636
Dutch,.....	4,436	4,536
Swedish,.....	8,695	11,542
Danish,.....	3,447	4,765
Russian,.....	1,430	1,604
Prussian,.....	2,087	2,321
Austrian,.....	2,452	3,382
Mexican,.....	962	976

1839.—Total import of the United States,.....	\$162,092,132
" " export "	121,028,416

American tonnage entered,.....	1,491,279 tons.
Foreign " "	624,814
Total entered,	2,116,093
American tonnage cleared,.....	1,477,928 tons.
Foreign " "	611,839
Total cleared,	2,089,767

Among the foreign tonnage were—

	<i>Entered.</i>	<i>Cleared.</i>
Of British,.....	495,353 tons.	491,465 tons.
French,.....	22,686	21,680
Spanish,.....	16,501	18,753
Hanseatic,.....	41,139	38,067
Dutch,.....	3,384	3,231
Swedish,.....	17,725	18,787
Danish,.....	5,053	4,759
Russian,.....	2,788	1,294
Prussian,.....	2,204	1,213
Austrian,.....	1,602	2,573
Mexican,.....	995	1,300

1840.—Total import of the United States,.....	\$107,141,519
" " export "	132,085,946

American tonnage entered,.....	1,576,946 tons.
Foreign " "	712,363
Total entered,	2,289,309
American tonnage cleared,.....	1,647,009 tons.
Foreign " "	706,486
Total cleared,	2,353,495

Among the foreign tonnage were—

	<i>Entered.</i>	<i>Cleared.</i>
Of British,.....	582,424 tons.	563,735 tons.
French,.....	30,701	29,553
Spanish,.....	15,927	16,768
Hanseatic,.....	41,874	44,772
Dutch,.....	3,629	3,437
Swedish,.....	15,376	19,067
Danish,.....	4,289	5,886
Russian,.....	322	1,188
Prussian,.....	1,394	1,659
Austrian,.....	3,957	4,145
Mexican,.....	1,544	2,137

II.—Showing the amount of imports and exports, and the American and foreign tonnage annually entered and cleared in the United States, from the year 1821 to the year 1830, both inclusive; from the same source as above.

1821.—Total import of the United States,	\$62,585,724
“ “ export	64,974,382
American tonnage entered,	765,098 tons.
Foreign “ “	81,526
Total entered,	846,624
American tonnage cleared,	804,947 tons.
Foreign “ “	83,073
Total cleared,	888,020
1822.—Total import of the United States,	\$83,241,541
“ “ export	72,160,281
American tonnage entered,	787,964 tons.
Foreign “ “	100,541
Total entered,	888,505
American tonnage cleared,	813,748 tons.
Foreign “ “	97,490
Total cleared,	911,238
1823.—Total import of the United States,	\$77,579,267
“ “ export	74,699,030
American tonnage entered,	775,271 tons.
Foreign “ “	119,468
Total entered,	894,739
American tonnage cleared,	810,761 tons.
Foreign “ “	119,740
Total cleared,	930,501
1824.—Total import of the United States,	\$80,549,007
“ “ export	75,986,657
American tonnage entered,	850,033 tons.
Foreign “ “	102,367
Total entered,	952,400
American tonnage cleared,	919,278 tons.
Foreign “ “	102,552
Total cleared,	1,021,830
1825.—Total import of the United States,	\$96,340,075
“ “ export	99,535,388
American tonnage entered,	880,754 tons.
Foreign “ “	92,927
Total entered,	973,681
American tonnage cleared,	960,366 tons.
Foreign “ “	95,080
Total cleared,	1,055,446
1826.—Total import of the United States,	\$84,974,477
“ “ export	77,595,322
American tonnage entered,	942,206 tons.
Foreign “ “	105,654
Total entered,	1,047,860
American tonnage cleared,	953,012 tons.
Foreign “ “	99,417
Total cleared,	1,052,429
1827.—Total import of the United States,	\$79,484,068
“ “ export	82,321,827
American tonnage entered,	918,361 tons.
Foreign “ “	137,589
Total entered,	1,055,950
American tonnage cleared,	980,542 tons.
Foreign “ “	131,250
Total cleared,	1,111,792

1828.—Total import of the United States,.....	\$88,509,824
“ “ export “	72,264,686
American tonnage entered,	868,381 tons.
Foreign “ “	150,223
Total entered,	1,018,604
American tonnage cleared,.....	897,404 tons.
Foreign “ “	151,030
Total cleared,	1,048,434
1829.—Total import of the United States,.....	\$74,492,527
“ “ export “	72,358,671
American tonnage entered,.....	872,949 tons.
Foreign “ “	130,743
Total entered,	1,003,692
American tonnage cleared,.....	944,799
Foreign “ “	133,006
Total cleared,	1,077,805
1830.—Total import of the United States,.....	\$70,876,920
“ “ export “	73,849,508
American tonnage entered,.....	967,227 tons.
Foreign “ “	131,900
Total entered,	1,099,127
American tonnage cleared,.....	971,760 tons.
Foreign “ “	133,436
Total cleared,	1,105,196

III.—Statement of Value of Cargoes carried by American and Foreign Vessels; being the aggregate of imports and exports of each year; and of the portion of such aggregate carried respectively by vessels of the United States and foreign vessels; these compared with the aggregate of American and foreign tonnage entering and clearing in each year; firstly from the year 1821 to 1830, and secondly from 1831 to 1840, both inclusive: expressed in millions and tenths.

	American Cargoes.	Foreign Cargoes.
1.—1821	\$113.1 millions.....	\$14.2 millions.
1822	137.5 “	17.6 “
1823	136.7 “	15.3 “
1824	141.5 “	13.0 “
1825	180.6 “	15.1 “
1826	150.1 “	12.0 “
1827	146.9 “	14.7 “
1828	142.9 “	17.6 “
1829	130.3 “	15.3 “
1830	129.8 “	14.7 “
	\$1,409.4 “	\$150.4 “

Aggregate of American tonnage entering and clearing as per table

No. III.....	17.5 millions tons
Do. foreign,.....	2.2 “ “
\$1,409.4 millions American cargoes to 17.5 millions tons, American tonnage; \$80.5 to 1.	
\$150.4 millions foreign cargoes to 2.2 millions tons, foreign tonnage; \$86. to 1.	

	American Cargoes.	Foreign Cargoes.
2.—1831	\$159.3 millions.....	\$24.9 millions.
1832	156.3 “	31.7 “
1833	165.9 “	32.0 “
1834	191.3 “	39.4 “
1835	229.3 “	42.0 “
1836	268.6 “	49.7 “
1837	213.2 “	44.9 “
1838	192.4 “	29.1 “

	American Cargoes.	Foreign Cargoes.
1839	238.5 millions.	44.4 millions.
1840	198.3 " "	40.6 " "
	<u>\$2,013.1</u> " "	<u>\$378.7</u> " "

Aggregate of American tonnage entering and clearing as per table

No. I.....	25.0 millions tons.
Do. foreign.....	11.4 " "
\$2,013.1 millions American cargoes to 25 millions American tonnage; \$80.5 to 1.	
\$378.7 millions foreign cargoes to 11.4 millions foreign tonnage; \$33.4 to 1.	

NOTE.—The amounts of this table slightly vary from the statement of tables No. I. and II., because the fractions are not fully given. The ratio of cargo to tonnage is also calculated without reference to fractions.

IV.—Showing the ratio of tonnage, American and foreign, to value of cargoes in three different years, selected out of each term of ten years, computed without accurate reference to fractions.

AMERICAN.				Ratio.
1st term.				
1821	\$113 millions of cargo,.....	to 1.5	millions of tons,.....	75 to 1
1825	195 do.	to 1.8	do.	108 to 1
1830	144 do.	to 1.9	do.	75 to 1
FOREIGN.				
1821	\$14.2 millions of cargo,.....	to 0.16	millions of tons,.....	90 to 1
1825	15.1 do.	to 0.18	do.	84 to 1
1830	14.7 do.	to 0.26	do.	57 to 1
AMERICAN.				Ratio.
2d term.				
1831	\$159.3 millions of cargo,.....	to 1.9	millions of tons,.....	84 to 1
1835	229.3 do.	to 2.7	do.	85 to 1
1840	198.3 do.	to 3.2	do.	62 to 1
FOREIGN.				
1831	\$25 millions of cargo,.....	to 0.55	millions of tons,.....	45.5 to 1
1835	42 do.	to 1.30	do.	32.3 to 1
1840	40.6 do.	to 1.40	do.	29 to 1

NOTE.—This table exhibits a very remarkable increase of the ratio of foreign tonnage to the value of the cargo; showing how much the carriage of the bulky commodities of our export has increased in foreign vessels. In 1821 the foreign tonnage carried \$90 millions worth of cargo in 1 million of tons; in 1840 it carried \$29 millions in 1—showing that the foreign tonnage is rapidly getting possession of that branch of our carrying trade which requires the greatest amount of shipping, and which is, therefore, the most valuable to navigation.

V.—Statement showing the number of enrolled and licensed vessels built in the United States; also the number lost or condemned, and the balance of increase in each year.

Years.	Quantity Built. Tons.	Lost or Con- demned. Tons.	Actual Increase. Tons.
Year ending December 31, 1830,.....	36,841	7,551	29,289
" " 1831,.....	40,241	7,932	32,308
" " 1832,.....	71,556	7,664	63,891
" " 1833,.....	88,647	5,951	82,694
" " 1834,.....	65,707	4,824	60,882
From September 30, 1835, to			
September 30, 1836,.....	66,982	5,619	61,361
" " 1837,.....	80,643	9,163	71,478
" " 1838,.....	71,275	6,208	65,067
" " 1839,.....	65,922	7,729	58,193
" " 1840,.....	62,187	13,174	49,012

THE BOOK TRADE.

- 1.—*The Mineral Springs of Western Virginia* : with Remarks on their Use, and the Diseases to which they are Applicable. By WILLIAM D. BURKE. New York : Wiley & Putnam. 1842.

This little volume presents a clear and succinct account of the celebrated springs of Western Virginia, an analysis of their properties, and, in fact, just that kind of information that the invalid who desires to partake of their curative influences is desirous of possessing. The author appears to make no statement of fact, of the truth of which he is not personally assured, either of his own knowledge, or on information derived from sources worthy of credit. There are detached accounts of several of the Virginia springs, which have been extremely useful in directing public attention to these valuable agents ; but there is no work like the present, that treats of them as a group, except, perhaps, the very valuable treatise of Bell "on Baths and Mineral Waters ;" some facetious epistles indited by "Peregrine Prolix ;" and a brief notice of each spring by Col. T. H. Perkins, an eminent merchant of Boston, in his introduction to the pamphlet on the Red Sulphur Springs, by Dr. Hunt, of which, with characteristic benevolence, he caused two thousand copies to be printed at his own expense, and circulated at the north. The author entertains the opinion that many years will not elapse before England and France will annually send multitudes of invalids to these unrivalled fountains, when we shall see those beautiful valleys teeming with living beings from every quarter of the globe.

- 2.—*Forest Life*. By the Author of "A New Home." 2 vols. New York : C. S. Francis. 1842.

These volumes, we are informed by the lady author, constitute rather a continuation than a sequel to the sketches published more than two years ago, under the title of "A New Home—Who'll Follow ?" She is credibly informed that ingenious malice has been busy in finding substance for the shadows which were called up to give variety to the pages of her former work ; in short, that she has been accused of substituting personality for impersonation. This, however, she utterly denies, and expresses her regret that any one has been persuaded to regard as unkind what was intended merely as a playful sketch and not as a serious history. In the volumes before us, Mrs. Clavers, for that is her real name, delineates with graphic life-like vividness the scarcely reclaimed wilderness—the forest—the pioneers—the settlers—the people, who, migrating thither of their own free will, each with his own individual views of profit or advancement—have, as a mass, been the mighty instrument in the hands of Providence, of preparing the way for civilization, for intelligence, for refinement, and for religion. She disclaims all notice of the older settlements of the west—the towns and villages in which the spirit of emulation and that of imitation have nearly annihilated all that is characteristic of new country life. We admire her dashing style—her delineations of the homely manners, habits, and peculiarities of western life—and commend the volumes to all the admirers of genuine American literature.

- 3.—*Tales from Life ; designed to illustrate certain religious doctrines and practices which prevail at the present day*. By GEORGE ROGERS. 18mo. pp. 180. Boston : A Tompkins.

The author of this little volume is a believer in the doctrine of the final salvation of the whole human family, and when he wrote these tales he was preaching in Pittsburg "night after night, and thrice on the Sabbaths." The facts or materials were, says the author, drawn from life. He adopted this course for diffusing his peculiar sentiments, because he judged that they would effect more for the end proposed, and do it better, than would a series of direct reasonings written in the same compass.

- 4.—*The Fortunes of Hector O'Halloran, and his man, Mark Antony O'Toole*. By WILLIAM MAXWELL, author of "Stories of Waterloo." Illustrated by DICK KITCAT. Svo. New York : D. Appleton & Co.

This humorous tale now in course of republication in numbers, which appear shortly after their arrival in this country, we can commend to those who read merely for amusement. The numbers thus far have the merit of being graphic and racy in the extreme.

5.—*An Exposition of the Thirty-nine Articles of the Church of England.* By the Rt. Rev. GILBERT BURNET, D.D., late Lord Bishop of Salisbury. With an Appendix, containing the Augsburg Confession, Creed of Pope Pius IV., etc. Revised and Corrected, with Copious Notes and Additional References, by the Rev. JAMES R. PAGE, A.M., of Queen's College, Cambridge. 8vo. pp. 587. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1842.

This is, we believe, the first American edition of a standard work in sectarian religious literature. The advantages of this edition over all others are thus stated in the editor's preface:—

"1. The learned author's text has been preserved with strict fidelity.

"2. The references to the fathers, councils, and other authorities have been almost universally verified; and, in many instances, corrected and so enlarged as to render them easy of access to the student.

"3. A large number of scripture references have been added. In different parts of this work, Bishop Burnet lays down propositions without giving the scripture by which they may be proved. The editor has, however, added references in these and all other instances where they might be considered not merely additions, but also improvements.

"4. The canons and decrees of councils and other documents of importance referred to have been given in the original, and from the most authentic sources—the places where they are to be found being specified.

"5. Copious notes have been added, containing, besides other information, notices of the principal heretics and persons of note, with an accurate account of their opinions. Also extracts, chiefly from the works of the most distinguished divines of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, opening and illustrating the chief points in controversy between us and the church of Rome. In an appendix has also been given the Confession of Augsburg, and Creed of Pope Pius IV., in the English and original tongues, and in the original only, the canons and rubric of the Mass."

6.—*Handy Andy.* By SAMUEL LOVER. 8vo. Nos. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1842.

About two years since, "a few short papers, under the title of this little venture, appeared at intervals in Bentley's Miscellany." Frequent inquiries were made "Why Handy Andy was not continued?" The first number therefore, of the series which Mr. Lover has at length resumed, is a reprint in part of what was embraced in the "Miscellany." In justice, however, to the author, it may be stated that much revision and the introduction of fresh matter has since taken place, with a view to the development of story and character necessary to a *sustained* work, as the first paper of Handy Andy was written without any intention of continuation, and of course required the additions and amendments alluded to. The numbers are beautifully printed, as indeed is every thing emanating from the press of these publishers.

7.—*The Massachusetts Register and United States Calendar for 1842, and other Valuable Information.* 18mo. pp. 250. Boston: James Loring.

This little annual contains a vast amount of information, commercial, political, and religious, interesting to the citizens of Massachusetts, as well as to those of the other states of the Union who have any intercourse with that important commonwealth. It has been published for a series of years by the same respectable publisher, who spares no pains or expense to secure its accuracy in every particular. It is to the people of Massachusetts what Williams' Register is to New York—a *vade mecum* of general reference on all the various subjects falling within the scope of a state register.

8.—*Little Coin, Much Care; or, How Poor Men Live.* A Tale for Young Persons. By MARY HOWITT. 18mo. pp. 171. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

The American publishers have done well in adding this admirable tale to their valuable series "for the people and their children." Miss Howitt belongs technically to that denomination of Christians commonly called Quakers or Friends, but she writes for all; and while the spirit of Christian piety and virtue pervades every line that emanates from her pen, there is not a thought or sentiment calculated to create discord or regret in the mind of any intelligent disciple of the "meek and lowly" Founder of the Christian faith, to whatever denomination he may be attached.

- 9.—*Poetical Remains of the late Lucy Hooper*; collected and arranged, with a memoir, by JOHN KEESE. 12mo. pp. 291. New York: Samuel Colman.

Mr. Keese has in this instance laid the lovers of poetry in general, and the admirers of this gifted child of song in particular, under the greatest obligations, by collecting the remains of one who, after a brief but brilliant career, has sunk to an untimely grave. If we may judge from the specimens before us, we have a right to assert that, had life been spared her, the authoress would have reached the highest pinnacle of poetic fame. The bud gave every promise; but, alas! it was plucked before its petals had fairly opened to the air. The leaves have scattered, and the color has faded, but we can still judge of the expected beauty of the flower by the fragrance which it leaves after its decay. The task of editing these remains could not have been intrusted to more appropriate hands. The author of the memoir enjoyed the acquaintance and friendship of the poetess, and had the fullest opportunity of becoming acquainted with those intellectual and moral qualities which, like a gleam of sunshine playing upon the foliage of the trees or falling upon the greensward at their roots, endures for a moment, yet leaves a permanent impression of beauty and grace.

- 10.—*Bible Biography; or the Lives and Characters of the Principal Personages mentioned in the Sacred Writings; particularly adapted to the instruction of Youth and Private Families, etc.* 8vo. pp. 441. New York: Robert Sears. 1842.

In addition to the biographical notices of Scriptural characters embraced in this volume, Mr. Sears, the compiler, has appended thirty dissertations on the evidences of Divine revelation, derived mainly from Timpson's Key to the Bible. The volume is rich in engraved illustrations of Scriptural scenes, manners, and customs, and forms altogether one of the most interesting and attractive volumes connected with biblical literature ever published in this country. In the preparation of the work, Mr. Sears seems to have availed himself of almost every work in existence that was calculated to impart information or shed light on the matter in hand; and the results of his labor in this field of literature evince the most untiring industry and patient research; and we have no doubt that his efforts will be duly appreciated, and meet with the encouragement they so richly deserve.

- 11.—*Homœopathy, and its Kindred Delusions.* By OLIVER WENDELL HOLMES, M.D. Boston: W. D. Ticknor. 1842.

This volume embraces the substance of two lectures delivered before the Boston Society for the diffusion of Useful Knowledge. Dr. Holmes does not profess to have submitted the doctrines he examines with so much wit and ridicule to the test of long repeated and careful experiment, and he considers it of no manner of use for him to allege the results of any experiments he might have instituted. He enters upon the subject with little hope of reclaiming converts, with no desire of making enemies, but with a firm belief "that its pretensions and assertions cannot stand before a single hour of calm inquiry." Men of science who have investigated the theory and had some experience in the practice, think differently.

- 12.—*Man, A Soul; or the Inward, and the Experimental, Evidences of Christianity.* By A. B. MURREY. Boston: William Crosby & Co. 1842.

We have ever considered the internal evidences of the truth of our holy religion as the most satisfactory. They speak directly to the "spirit in man" to which the "inspiration of the Almighty giveth understanding." In the little treatise before us, these evidences are presented in a clear, forcible, and convincing light; and we commend it to the careful perusal of all, and more especially to those who from education or other circumstance are inclined to skepticism touching the inborn truths of Christianity.

- 13.—*The Fountain, and other Poems.* By WILLIAM CULLEN BRYANT. 12mo. pp. 100. New York: Wiley & Putnam.

It is stated in a note addressed to the reader, that "the poems which compose this little volume have been written within the last five or six years—some of them merely as parts of a larger one planned by the author, which may possibly be finished hereafter." Bryant is emphatically the poet of America, and the productions of his pen will endure as long as the language in which they are written, or truth, poetry, and nature have an abiding place on this terrestrial globe.

- 14.—*Life and Writings of Ebenezer Porter Mason: interspersed with Hints to Parents and Instructors on the Training and Education of a Child of Genius.* By DENISON OLMSTED. New York: Dayton & Newman. 1842.

The subject of this appropriate memoir was a remarkable example of the early development of genius; and in conformity to the practice of British writers, to give extended biographies of their youth, who, in the morning of life, exhibited extraordinary talents, and gave promise of the highest excellence, but sunk prematurely into the grave, Professor Olmsted has prepared a similar tribute to the extraordinary youth whom it commemorates, as due alike to his own memory, to the place of his education, and to his country. It appears to be the biographer's design that each passage shall serve some valuable end, in exhibiting the development of intellect, the lofty aim, the kind affections, the filial piety, or the struggles with sickness and penury, which marked the progress of young Mason from the cradle to the grave.

- 15.—*Elements of Logic; comprising the substance of the article in the Encyclopedia Metropolitana: with additions, etc.* By RICHARD WHATLEY, D. D., Archbishop of Dublin. 12mo. pp. 359. Boston: James Munroe & Co.

In an age marked for the fertility of its novel theories and doctrines, in science as well as religion, the subject treated of in this volume would seem to recommend itself to every person who desires to reason forcibly or correctly. This elementary treatise holds a very high rank among the educational works of the day, having been introduced into many of the best managed and popular seminaries of learning, both in England and the United States. It is got up in the usually correct and beautiful style of most Boston books.

- 16.—*A Dictionary of Arts, Manufactures, and Mines.* By ANDREW URE, M.D., F.R.S. Illustrated with 1241 engravings. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

Eleven numbers of this reprint of a most valuable work have already appeared, embracing more than seven hundred large octavo pages, printed on a small but clear type. The price of the work in numbers to subscribers is but five dollars, and the publishers state as a satisfaction to those who have so liberally patronized the work, that when the publication shall terminate it cannot be sold for less than seven dollars.

GILLOTT'S PENS.—We are gratified to hear of the increased demand for these pens. Joseph Gillott has been for twenty-five years engaged in the manufacture, and he has during that time been enabled to make such improvements in their fabrication as at length to produce decidedly the best and most perfect article of the kind now in use. The increased demand for the article is, perhaps, the best evidence in their favor; and we therefore state from a source entitled to credit, the books of the manufacturer, that from October, 1838, to October, 1839, the number was 14,654,702; and from December, 1840, to the year ending December, 1841, 62,126,928; showing an increase, in two years, of about forty-seven millions of pens. The great number of counterfeits, both in this country and England, speaks strongly in favor of the genuine article.

ERRATA.—In our last number, chapter I., "on the Progress of Population and Wealth," etc., page 34, sixth line from the top, for "the whole slave population 17.76," read, "*the whole colored population, free and slave, 19.27 per cent.*" Same page, twenty-second line from the top, for "and where it constitutes a larger part of the population," read, "*and to such states as those in which the slaves constitute at least one tenth of the population.*" On page 36, nineteenth line from the top, read after, "*The increase from the first source was estimated by 'Dr. Seybert.'*" On page 38, second line from the bottom, for "77,000" read, "*probably about 70,000.*"